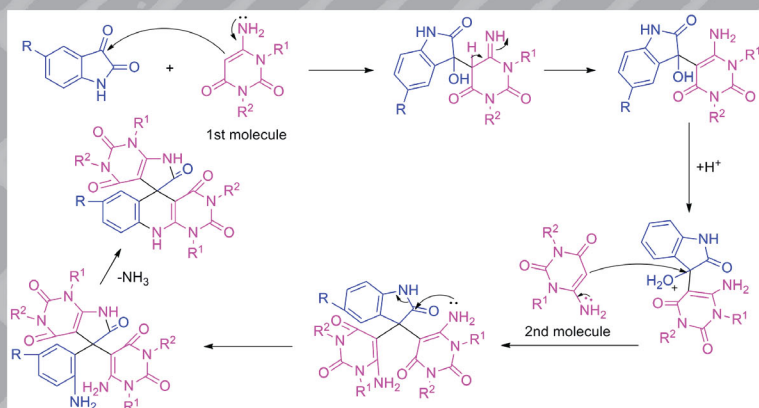


# Industrial Applications of Green Solvents

## Volume I



*Edited by*  
Inamuddin  
Mohd Imran Ahamed  
Abdullah M. Asiri

M|R|F

# **Industrial Applications of Green Solvents**

## **Volume I**

**Edited by**

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## Preface

The concept of green chemistry emerged as a natural pollution preventive measure in chemical industries. A wide range of products including chemicals used for protecting crops, improving yield and manufacturing of medicines are using many substances and thus intentionally or unintentionally release harmful end products that pollute the environment and at the same time are dangerous for the human health. It is well-known that around the world billions metric tons of hazardous waste is produced per day the by chemical industries. Therefore, it becomes very important to control the pollution and generation of hazardous waste at this pace. In 1970, The United States formed the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) which set several environmental regulations/guidelines for the safeguarding of human and environment health. Since then, EPA encourages researchers and chemist to synthesize and design new processes in order to reduce the production of toxic and hazardous waste. With the help of green chemistry, the focus is on the synthesis of environment-friendly products, low energy requirement processes, alternatives of hazardous substances and also preventing pollution in its first place. For this purpose, various research grants/funds are allocated. In 1995, President Clinton started the Presidential Green Chemistry Challenge Award by recognizing the improvements in the field of green chemistry. Geoffrey Coates of Cornell University won this award for developing a metal complex that is used in making plastic by using very cheap starting material carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide and in these plastics, no hazardous chemicals are present as it is free from bisphenol-A. Green chemistry is not limited to industries only but also helpful in pharmaceutical companies. Yi Tang, another Presidential Green Chemistry Challenge winner, developed a new method for making cholesterol drugs by using cheaper starting material and less hazardous solvent. In a similar way, ethyl lactate manufactured from corn starch and soybean oil is used to replace hazardous cleaning solvents as it biodegrades to carbon dioxide and water and is also available at low cost as compared to petrochemical solvents. These are the very few examples of applications of green chemistry. Green chemistry is helpful for the protection of human health and the environment by reducing pollution, eliminating, reducing or replacing the hazardous waste and are beneficial for the economy.

**Industrial Applications of Green Solvents Volume 1** is intended to explore some of industrial applications of green solvents (water, ionic liquids, supercritical carbon dioxide, terpenes) in the industrially important areas such as chemical synthesis

including lipase-catalyzed reactions, organic synthesis, esterification reactions, heterocycles as well as paint industry, leather industry and gas separation membranes.

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## Chapter 1

# Plant Cell Culture Strategies for the Production of Terpenes as Green Solvents

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### Abstract

Green chemistry implies the synthesis and design of fine chemicals of biological origin which can be used in industrial applications. Petroleum-based solvents such as n-hexane and toluene, etc. used in different extraction procedures have shown adverse effects on human health and the environment. The alternatives are the terpenes derived from essential oils have represented their potential as green solvents. The practical use of d-limonene and  $\alpha$ -pinene in the extraction of oil from various substances has recently, been investigated as an alternative to petro based solvents. These volatiles are mainly produced in different parts of medicinal and aromatic plants. However, their limited productivity due to geographic variability and environmental fluctuations in natural plants does not meet the emerging industrial demands. In this chapter, the potential of different plant cell culture approaches for the enhancement of production of important terpene volatiles in different plants have been elucidated. Biotechnological methods which can improve the yield of essential oils through genetic engineering of the metabolic pathways responsible for the biosynthesis of terpene volatiles have been described with recent examples.

### Keywords

Essential Oils, Volatiles, Green Solvents, Terpenes, Cell Cultures, Callus Cultures

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## 1. Introduction

Green chemistry employs all those techniques, methods and principles, which are environmentally friendly in terms of reduction of hazardous substances generally used during the production of chemical products. Greener synthesis of starting materials for different industrial applications, including organic synthesis has been recognized globally for their non-hazardous effects on the environment and human health. Plant oils and fats from animals have diverse industrial applications of anthropogenic interests. During the extraction of oils and fats from plants or animals, n-hexane an important petroleum-derived organic solvent has been used as the most commonly used solvent. It was preferred for many years during traditional Soxhlet extraction procedures. Being a non-polar solvent and with low boiling point, n-hexane has shown high efficiency and simple recovery during extraction of oils [1]. However, during the extraction and recovery procedures, the leakage of n-hexane to the environment can cause negative effects on human health and environment. Therefore, it's crucial to explore alternative options and choice of solvents for extraction which can minimize or prevent the associated adversities.

Plant-derived natural compounds such as essential oils have diverse potentials and can be used as alternatives to petroleum-based solvents in various industrial applications. The bioactive volatiles extracted from the essential oils such as  $\alpha$ -pinene, d-limonene, linalool and eugenol etc. have been used as natural solvents in many extraction procedures, dyes, and the aroma and as cleaning and degreasing agents. Essential oils could be obtained from different parts of medicinally important plants such as roots and rhizomes, leaves, bark and branches, flowers, fruits, and seeds. Essential oils derived terpene solvents can have many benefits as solvents of choice in the different extraction procedures. Application of terpene solvents can significantly reduce treatment time and energy. Like n-hexane, toluene is also a recommended solvent for distillation processes, in the cosmetics and pharmaceutical industries. Being a petroleum based solvent, the excessive use of toluene can cause severe environmental and health complications on its leakage to the environment [2]. The lab scale potentials of toluene can be replaced by the eco-friendly monoterpene, d-limonene as an alternative to toluene in the food industries [3].

However, production and yield of the important volatiles are limited in the natural plants by factors including but not limited to climatic conditions, cultivation parameters, harvesting time and soil [4]. Biotechnological methods can provide promising means for the efficient production of useful natural volatiles through eco-friendly methods [5]. Plant cell cultures hold tremendous potential in the production of higher yield of secondary products including terpenes. Some novel volatiles which are not present in wild plants, may also be produced through biotransformation during *in-vitro* cultures [6]. Different types of cell cultures callus and cell cultures, adventitious roots culture, shoot culture, hairy roots culture and embryo culture, etc. can be used for the production better yield of important secondary volatiles [7]. Secondary metabolites in plants are generated as a part of metabolism and act as defensins for the plants [8]. Different manipulation and elicitation strategies can be adopted to enhance the yield of these secondary metabolites through *in vitro* cultures of plants [9]. The different biotechnological approaches can manipulate the terpene biosynthetic metabolic pathways in the plant cell for enhanced biosynthesis of terpene volatiles. Generally, terpene biosynthesis in the plant cell is regulated through the deoxyxylulose phosphate and mevalonate-dependent (MVA) [10].

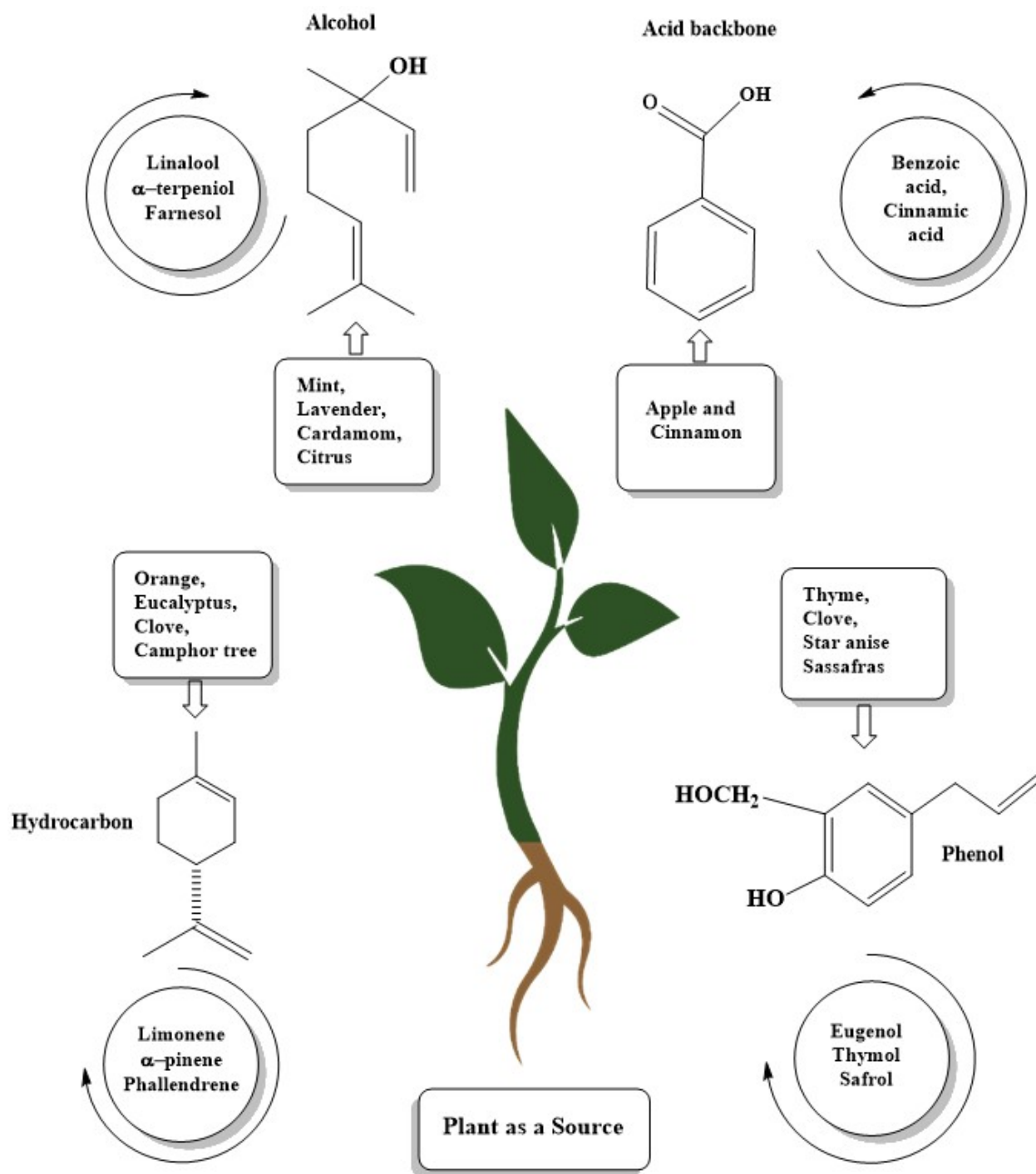
In this chapter, the potential of cell cultures of plants to produce enhanced quantity of essential oils in medicinal and aromatic plants will be reviewed and discussed in the light of current innovations in cell culture technology and biotechnology. We will deal with compounds such as monoterpenes and sesqui-, di- and triterpenes which are classified as green solvents for their potential industrial applications.

## 2.1 Essential oil as a source of green solvents

Essential oils are the plant-derived natural products and are called “essential” due to the essence of the distinctive fragrance they contain, specific to the fragrance of the respective plant from which they are derived. A large portion (10%) of the known plant essential oils has important commercial applications [1, 11]. Aromatic plant species grown in different geographic zones may differ in the composition of these essential oils. Generally, essential oils are mixtures of aromatic compounds mainly composed of terpene hydrocarbons, a product of secondary metabolism in many aromatic plants [12].

Terpenes are organic compounds assembled from five-carbon isoprene units. Isoprenoids are simple hydrocarbon molecules which form the basic unit of terpenoids. Isoprenoids constitute to form monoterpenoids ( $C_{10}$ ) and then sesquiterpenoids [13], which, ultimately, form other metabolites including carotenoids, chlorophyll pigments, phytohormones, rubber and sterols, turpentine [14]. Among the terpenes hydrocarbons, monoterpenes, for instance,  $\alpha$ -pinene, d-limonene, and p-cymene etc. represent a large proportion of essential oils [1] as indicated in Fig. 1.

The monoterpene hydrocarbons are of interest in many industrial applications, including food, fragrance, cosmetic and pharmaceuticals. In the food industry, the monoterpenes are attributed to their diverse applications as natural organic solvents with an eco-friendly trademark and prominent diversity. Large varieties of monoterpene organic solvents obtained from essential oils can efficiently replace the use of conventional solvents such as petroleum or halogenated solvents in a variety of extraction procedures. Their physical properties are different due to the presence of monocyclic, bicyclic and acyclic hydrocarbon chains. One of the significant monoterpenes, d-limonene, harvested as a byproduct from citrus peel is a low cost and eco-friendly green solvents having potential applications as degreasing and cleaning properties with optimal industrial performance [5]. The practical use of d-limonene in the extraction of oil from various oleiferous substances has recently, been investigated as an alternative to organic solvents. Similarly, the analysis of  $\alpha$ -pinene through qualitative and quantitative measures showed similar results in extraction procedures as obtained using n-hexane as a chemical solvent. Obtained through steam distillation or fractionation of pine oleoresins,  $\alpha$ -pinene represents the major component of oils derived from confers, rose, basil rosemary, etc. and is considered as an important potential green solvent in many industrial applications [3]. The monoterpene, p-cymene derived from leaf essential oils of many woody plants has also shown positive results as an ingredient of the perfumes (musk), fragrance or as a solvent for dyes and varnishes in important industrial applications [2].



*Fig.1 Different type of familiar compounds in essential oils.*



## **2.2 Green solvents as an alternative to chemical solvents**

Generally, for extraction of oils and fats from plants or animals, n-hexane has been used as the most commonly used solvent. A non-polar solvent with low boiling point i.e. 69 °C, n-hexane was preferred for many years during traditional Soxhlet extraction procedures as an important petroleum-derived organic solvent. Its two main advantages include high efficiency and simple recovery during the extraction of oils [1]. However, due to leakage of n-hexane during the extraction and recovery procedures, the prospective negative effects on human health and environment urged for the exploration of alternative options in order to prevent the associated adversities. Among the monoterpene hydrocarbons,  $\alpha$ -pinene and p-cymene have been used recently in the extraction of vegetable oils. Both have shown promising results in oil extraction and have tested for their optimal performance as good alternatives to n-hexane and alcoholic solvents [5]. Application of terpene solvents in the process of green extraction can significantly reduce treatment time and energy. During several distillation processes, toluene is the recommended solvent for extraction in the cosmetics and pharmaceutical industries. Being a petroleum based solvent, the excessive use of toluene has to be reduced due to its environmental and health complications on its leakage into the environment [2]. Recently, the monoterpene, d-limonene has been used as an alternative to toluene in the food industries for the determination of moisture content in the food products. The organic solvents such as acetone, dichloromethane, and chloroform etc. have routinely employed during extraction of food colors such as carotenoids. These solvents are very efficient because of their versatile volatility and dissolubility [3]. However, these solvents can contaminate the end products due to the mixing of the residues and can eventually affect human health and the environment. Reduction of these volatile solvents can be achieved by the application of d-limonene during the extraction procedures, which can significantly enhance the extraction yield and may also protect the environment [5].

## **2.3 Essential oil yield and limiting factors for production in wild grown plants**

Medicinal and aromatic plants are the major sources for essential oils. Most of these plants synthesize the essential oils in different parts through distinct developmental stages in their life cycle [15]. Since the major proportions of all the essential oils are plant-based they are called as green solvents [16]. Many plant species of genera *Abies* and *Ocimum* are reported to synthesize essential oils in different parts of the plants. They are employed for treating arthritis, bronchial asthma, bronchitis, cancer, diarrhea, dysentery, insect bites, malaria, eye disorders, and skin disorders [12]. The bioactivity of these plants is suggested to be mainly due to essential oils richness in terpenoids found in their leaves.

Different parts of plants such as seeds, roots, peels, leaves, fruits, and barks produce several essential oils [17]. Essential oils are found in bark and branches in case of camphor and cinnamon, leaves in case of oregano, eucalyptus and mint, roots and rhizomes in case of ginger, flowers as violet, lavender, rose, and jasmine and fruits and seeds of lemon, orange, nutmeg, and pepper. Generally, 5% of the dry matter of vegetables is formed by essential oils. In addition to the part of plant, environmental conditions for example climate, cultivation, soil and harvesting time also influence the composition of the essential oil [4]. Due to these multiple factors, the essential oil volatiles like other natural products are found in limited quantities in different plant tissues. Confinement of specific plant tissues for instance seeds or flowers for production of volatiles limit the yield of essential oils from the cultivated plants. Since the seeds or flowers represent a small weight compared to the whole plant in a harvesting season, eventually result in the low yield of useful volatiles and the operational procedures might be expensive. The higher market demand of the potent volatiles has been fulfilled by the production of chemically synthesized compounds, for instance, the synthetic product of natural vanillin is traded in the market for consumers [1]. However, the chemical synthesis of the natural products, although a cheaper option but is not preferred by consumers due to its negative impacts on human health and the environment. Biotechnological methods can provide promising means for the efficient production of useful natural volatiles through eco-friendly methods [5].

### 3.1 Biotechnological production of terpenes

Compared with the wild counterpart, plant *in vitro* cultures hold tremendous potential in the production of higher yield of secondary products including terpenes. However, in some instances, the volatiles detected in the intact plants were not found in the *in vitro* culture and vice versa. Besides, some novel volatiles have been reported to be produced as a consequence of biotransformation in *in-vitro* cultures, those which were not present in the wild plants [6]. *In vitro* cultures include all the methods such as callus and cell cultures, adventitious roots culture, shoot culture, hairy roots culture, embryo culture etc. which have been used for the production of the better yield of important secondary metabolites including essential oil [7] as indicated in Table 1 [15, 18-35]. Plants produce chemical compounds as a response to any type of stress exerted upon them. These compounds have been produced as a part of secondary metabolism and thus called secondary metabolites. Secondary metabolites which act as defensins for the plants are useful medicinal compounds for different animal disorders [8]. *In vitro* cultures can yield substantial amounts of secondary metabolites through different manipulation and elicitation strategies to enhance the yield [9]. Altogether, the different biotechnological

methods can enhance the metabolic pathways in the plant cell for enhanced biosynthesis of terpene volatiles. Generally, terpene biosynthesis in the plant cell starts with the metabolic regulation of two important precursors known as isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) and dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP). It is worth mentioning that IPP in higher plants is biosynthesized through two different metabolic pathways including mevalonate-dependent (MVA) pathway and mevalonate-independent pathway also known as deoxyxylulose phosphate pathway, schematized in Fig. 2 [10].

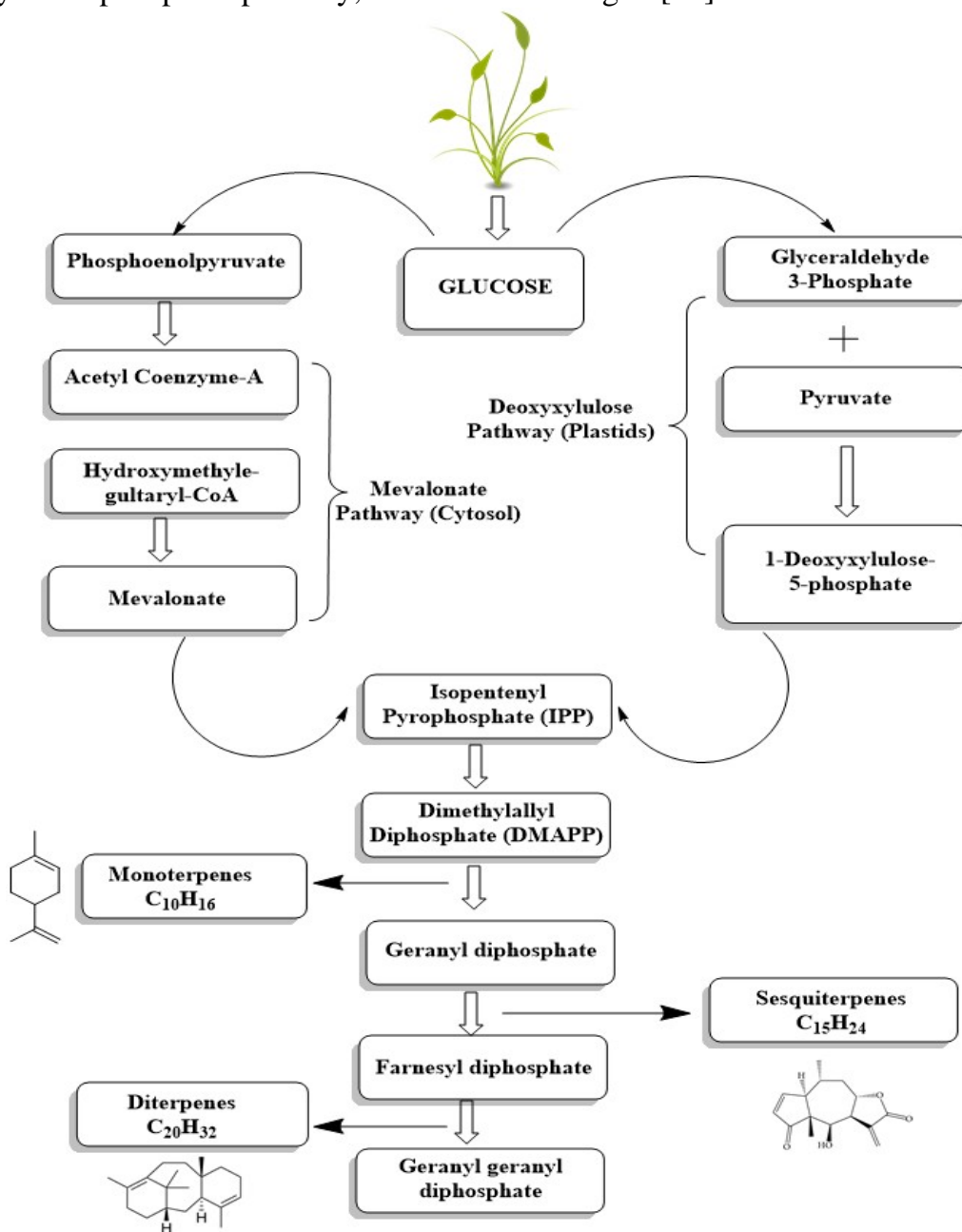


Fig.2 Terpenoids biosynthetic metabolic pathways in plants.

*Table 1 Plant cell cultures of different medicinal plants with essential oil profiles*

S. No.	Plants Name	Type of cell culture	Total volatile compounds	Abundant terpene volatiles	References
1	<i>Thymus moroderi</i>	Micro propagation	42	1,8-Cineole, camphor	[22]
2	<i>Mentharotundifolia</i> L huds	Micro propagation	18	Carvone	[23]
3	<i>Salvia dolomitica</i> Codd	Micro propagation	83	$\alpha$ -Pinene, $\beta$ -phellandrene, borneol	[21]
4	<i>Salvia officinalis</i>	Micro propagation	73	Camphor, cis-Thujone	[24]
5	<i>Thymus vulgaris</i> L	Micro propagation	54	Thymol, $\gamma$ -terpinene, p-cymene, carvacrol	[25]
6	<i>Anthemisobilis</i>	Shoots culture	30	o-farnesene, 2-hexenol	[26]
7	<i>Saturejakhuzistanica</i>	Shoots culture	14	Carvacrol, $\Gamma$ -terpinenes, P-cymene	[27]
8	<i>Ajuga bracteosa</i>	Shoots culture	34	$\alpha$ -Pinene, $\beta$ -pinene, $\beta$ -ocimene	[18]
9	<i>Lallemantiaiberica</i>	Shoots culture	55	limonene, $\alpha$ -Pinene,	[20]
10	<i>Agastacherugosa</i>	Shoot culture		$\alpha$ -Pinene, estragole	[19]
11	<i>Anthemisobilis</i>	Shoots culture	30	o-Farnesene, 2-hexenol	[26]
12	<i>Ocimumbasilicum</i>	Shoots culture	37	Estragole, ethyleugenol 8-Cineole	[28]
13	<i>Origanumacutidens</i>	Callus culture	38	$\alpha$ -pinene, carvacrol	[29]
14	<i>Lallemantiaiberica</i>	Callus culture	9	Thymol, octane, carvacrol	[30]
15	<i>Rosa hybrid</i> L	Callus culture	11	Geraniol, Citronellol	[31]
16	<i>Daucusgenotypes.</i>	Callus culture	30	$\alpha$ -Pinene, carotol, $\alpha$ -Bergamoten	[32]
17	<i>Ajuga bracteosa</i>	Cell culture	29	$\beta$ -Pinene,1-Terpinene-4-ol	[15]
18	<i>Agastacherugosa</i> Kuntze	Cell culture	14	2,3-butanedione, limonene 2,6-nonadienal	[33]
19	<i>Cupressuslusitanica</i>	Cell culture	10	b-Thujaplicin. Camphor	[34]
20	<i>Tripterygium regelii</i>	Adventitious roots culture	12	Clastrol, diterpenoids	[35]

### **3.2 Approaches to improve the yield of terpenes produced by plant cell culture technology**

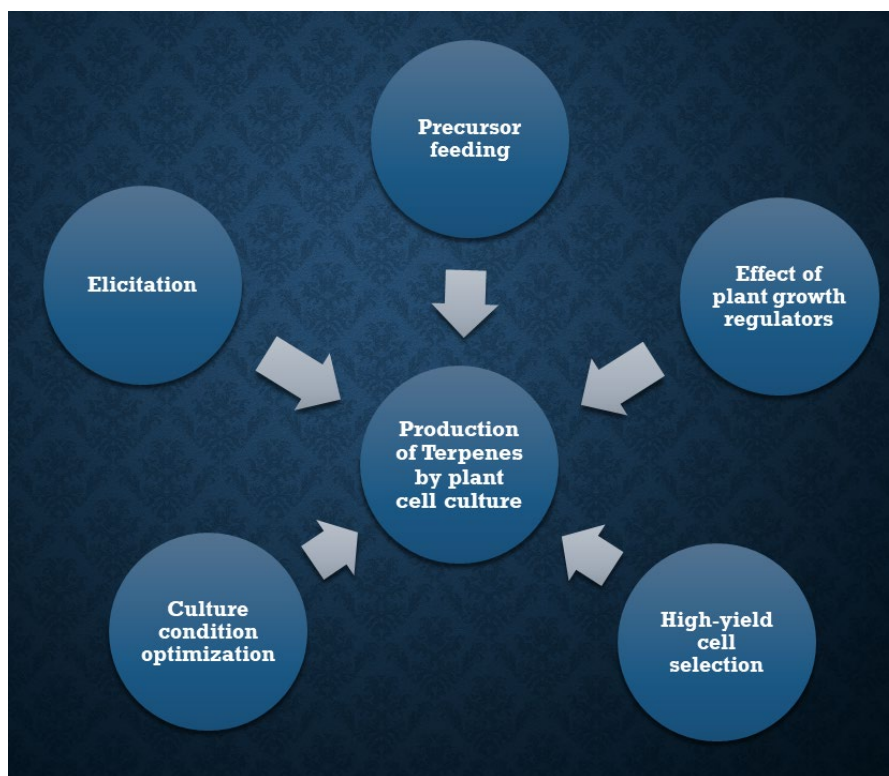
Micropropagation is a robust and reliable technique used for multiplication of plants through *in vitro* cultures; it produces a large number of homogeneous plants in a short period of time. Besides, production of bioactive secondary metabolites can be enhanced in medicinal plants with this technique. During micropropagation, tiny parts of the plants commonly called as explants excised from different plants species can be micro propagated under optimized growth condition of culture media, temperature and photoperiod [36]. To engineer secondary product metabolic pathways through genetic manipulation of plants, the establishment of *in vitro* plant regeneration systems facilitates these efforts [37]. Conventional breeding for the enhanced production of high-quality plant products is still faced with many challenges. Nevertheless, plant genomics and biotechnology research have produced more knowledge to a better understanding of the complex genetics and biochemistry involved in the biosynthesis of these plant secondary metabolites including terpenes [38]. Although plant cell cultures don't provide those specialized glandular structures as found in natural plants for the accumulation of essential oils and related products, however, they provide good plant materials for accumulation and harvesting of non-poisonous terpenes. Different approaches can be employed through *in vitro* plant cell cultures for the stimulation of terpene biosynthetic pathways to influence the production of elevated levels of essential oils [6] as indicated in Fig. 3. Similarly, plant cell cultures can be manipulated for the upregulated biosynthesis of essential oils through:

1. Changing the composition of chemical reagents in the culture medium
2. Induction of differentiation in plant cell cultures.
3. Creating unique artificial sites for accumulation of volatiles.
4. Altering the physical conditions for *in vitro* growth, such as light, temperature and gaseous environment.

### **3.3 Terpenes in callus and cell cultures**

Plant cell suspension cultures compared with wild plants and other types of cultures, have the advantage of being (1) less prone to various environmental variations (2) stable production platforms of homogeneous and uniform yield (3) rapid growth (4) reproducible (5) able to synthesize novel products that do not normally exist in the native plants [39]. In addition to medicinal products, cell suspensions have been employed to produce compounds used as fragrances, food flavors, and additives, dyes, coloring agents

[9]. There are, however, many limitations to cell suspension culture technology including slow growth and scale-up hurdles, the instability of cell lines and subsequent lower yield of some important metabolites [36]. A lot of important aromatic plants have been exploited for the production of useful volatiles such as industrially important monoterpenes through callus and cell cultures [15, 18]. Considerable levels of monoterpenes along with carotenoids were detected in the callus cultures of *Tanacetum vulgare* L. The promising green solvents, for instance,  $\alpha$ -pinene and d limonene have been produced in the cell cultures of *Pelargonium* variants. Callus and cell cultures in *Mentha* species have shown variable trends in the production of monoterpenes within the different cell lines. In some studies the cell cultures were found to accumulate only the precursors of the volatile compounds; however, few *Mentha* cultures have been recommended for the production of characteristic monoterpenes, those found in the intact menthe plants. Likewise, callus cultures of *M. Piperita* have been reported for the accumulation of monoterpenes in special secretory organs. These volatiles were found in correspondence to the intact plants [6]. Callus and cell cultures of three aromatic plants species *Taiwan Aoshiso*, *Akachirimen*, and *Aochirimen* accumulated higher levels of monoterpenes than the wild grown respective plants.



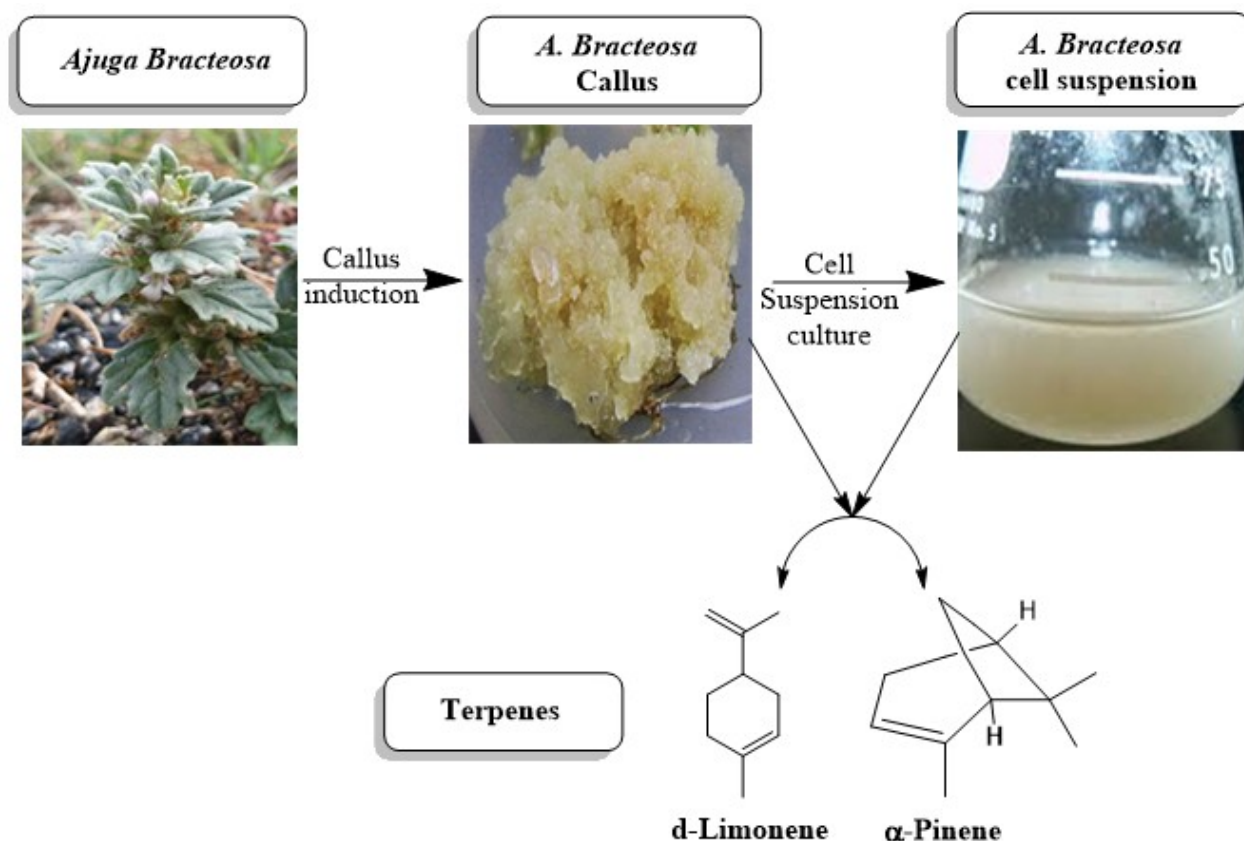
*Fig.3 Plant cell culture strategies for enhancement of production of terpenes in plants.*

Light intensity or quality during *in vitro* cultures can influence the plant cell's physiological and hormonal status through the initiation of distinct metabolic pathways that can influence and regulate the biosynthesis of important essential oils [15, 40]. In cell cultures of *Ocimum basilicum* L, constant light illumination produced higher total essential oil yield including the potent volatile linalool than the cell cultures grown under complete darkness. The process of elicitation by application of chemical elicitors e.g. phenylacetic acid and methyl jasmonate and under the effects of physical elicitors such as the absence of light illuminance in the cultures has positively influenced the production of monoterpene *Ajuga bracteosa* cell culture [Fig.4]. Higher levels of monoterpene hydrocarbons such as  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -limonene,  $\beta$ -ocimene, 1-terpinene-4-ol, caryophyllene,  $\beta$ -farnesene, myrtenal, citronellyl acetate, and  $\beta$ -element were detected in the cell cultures grown under the influence of methyl-jasmonate and constant dark [15] [Fig. 5]. In another study, the important monoterpenes such as limonene and terpinolene were elicited by methyl jasmonate under dark in higher amount in *Rosa damascene* cell cultures [41]. The process of elicitation is directly linked with the biosynthesis of essential oils in the plant cell. Several factors are responsible for the regulation of volatiles biosynthesis. These factors include genetic makeup of the explant used in cell cultures, type of culture media and the *in vitro* developmental phase of plant cells [42].

### 3.4 Terpenes in shoot cultures

*In vitro* regenerated shoots have been found to accumulate higher levels of monoterpenes. The role of exogenous application of plant growth regulators in the culture media has been reported to stimulate the biosynthesis of potent organic volatiles having industrial applications as green solvents [6, 15, 19, 20]. In a recent study by Ali et al. [18], it was observed that *Ajuga bracteosa*, (a high valued medicinal plant) accumulated higher levels of monoterpene hydrocarbons including limonene (3.4%),  $\alpha$ -pinene (5.3%), camphene (4.45%),  $\alpha$ -thujone (9.4%), 1,8 -cineole (14.3%), borneol (11.4%), camphor (12.2%), and nerol (9.2) in the shoots raised *in vitro* in response to application of thidiazuron (TDZ), an important plant regulator [18] [Fig. 5]. In another similar study, TDZ supplementation into the MS media produced a substantial amount of monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes through shoot cultures in medicinally potent plant *Lallemantia iberica* [20]. The higher production of the important terpene volatiles in the regenerated shoots can be attributed to the different attributes of shoot cultures, such as the juvenile stage of the differentiated shoots, as the monoterpenes biosynthesis is directly linked to the young and immature shoot with higher metabolic potential [21]. Biosynthesis of terpene metabolites generally takes place in epidermal cells of shoot or leaf and store in special glandular structures called as leaf trichomes [18]. In another study, compared with callus cultures, the *in vitro*

raised shoot cultures in medicinally important plants *L. angustifolia* and *R. officinalis* were found to accumulate higher levels of monoterpene hydrocarbons [43].



*Fig.4 Development of plant callus and cell suspension cultures for production of terpenes in Ajuga bracteosa.*

As the growth and development during *in vitro* shoot cultures are highly influenced by the effects of different plant growth regulators, so the biosynthesis of terpenes is positively correlated to the *in vitro* growth and developmental. Besides, the ontogenetic changes in the shoots as a result of plant cell growth in an artificially maintained growing environments and the accelerated but controlled secondary metabolism during *in vitro* cultures are the other important reasons which influence and regulate the biosynthesis of secondary volatiles [19, 21].



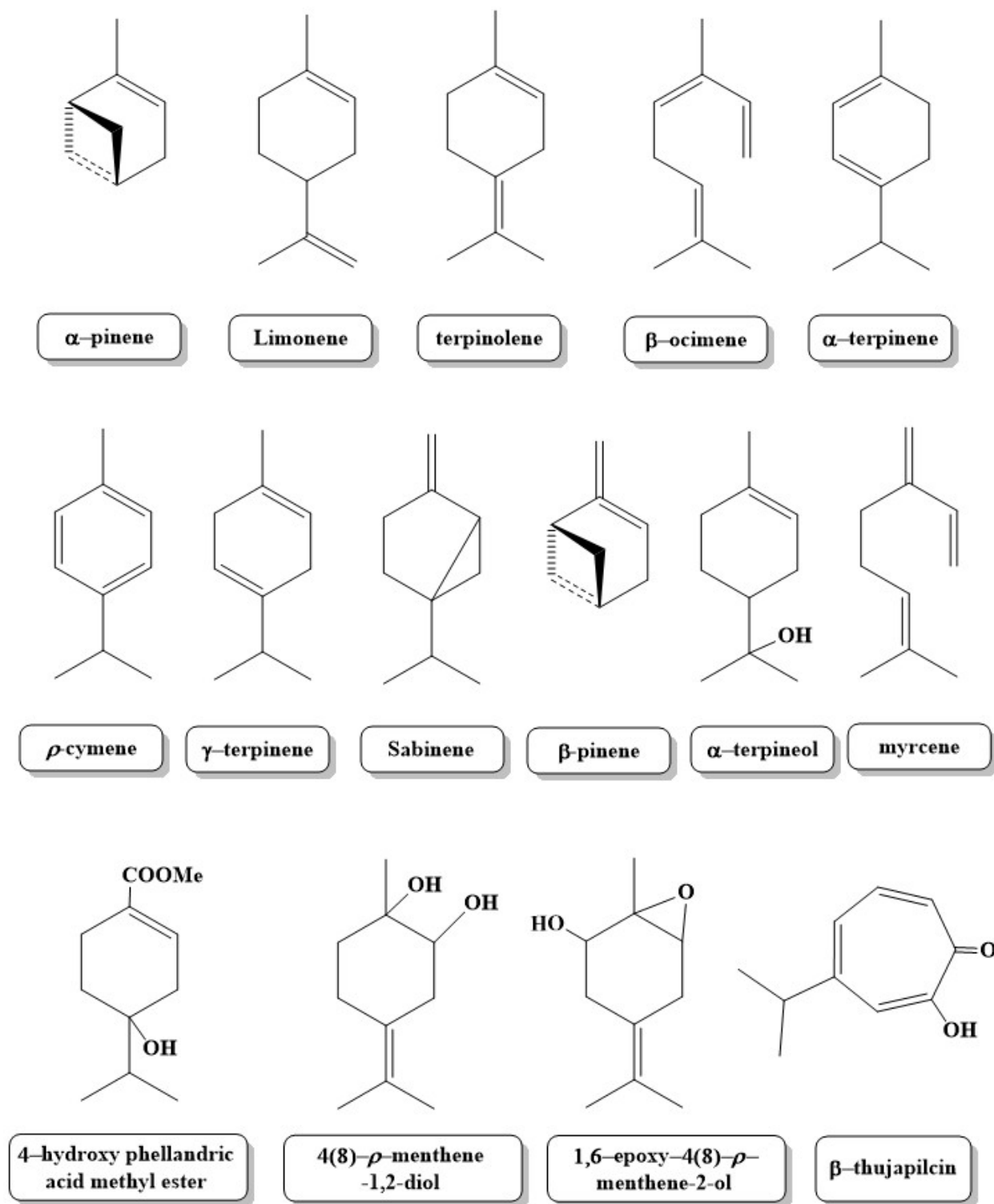


Fig.5 Chemical structures of different monoterpene volatiles detected in shoot cultures of *Ajuga bracteosa*.

### 3.5 Terpenes in hairy roots

Generally, the potential of plant cell cultures for the production of bioactive secondary metabolites can be enhanced by the induction of cell differentiation. Within the different cell culture approaches, hairy root cultures hold tremendous potential for the biosynthesis of volatile organic compounds besides other classes of potent secondary metabolites. When plant tissue is genetically transformed by *Agrobacterium rhizogenes* which inserts its T-DNA through Ri plasmid, results in the formation of hair like small and fine roots. The advantage of hairy root culture technology is that it does not require further media supplementation of cell cultures with plant growth regulators, because the inserted T-DNA carries the genes responsible for indigenous biosynthesis of auxins. Lacking the property of geotropism, hairy roots are highly branched and can grow faster than normal roots. They not only produce the metabolites at levels similar to the normal roots but also the metabolites which are produced in the aerial parts of the natural plants. Further, the hairy roots are phytochemically and biochemically stable like any other cell culture technologies. Hairy root cultures have been focused on their potential in the biosynthesis of notable natural products including volatile organic compounds [43].

An excellent review article, [44] has analyzed the different aromatic plant species which have been capable of the production of considerable levels of essential oils including terpenes through hairy root culture technology. Among the different plants, the hairy roots of *P. anisum* and *A. millefolium* resulted in producing essential oils, like the essential oil profiles of the mother plants, also some new metabolites were detected those were not found in the native plants. In certain cases such as hairy roots of *D. carota* and *L. alpinum*, the essential oil profiles of the volatiles were found in elevated levels, compared with the respective callus and cell cultures. The incremented yield of essential oil can be attributed to the application of elicitation strategies during hairy roots cultures [Fig. 6]. Nonetheless, the metabolic pathways for the biosynthesis of volatiles can be manipulated by using more effective transgenes that can be inserted into the T-DNA region.

### 4.1 Genetic engineering of plants for enhanced terpenoid biosynthesis

Few reports are available on genetic engineering of different plant species through transformation with the candidate genes responsible for terpenes biosynthesis. Particularly the metabolic pathways responsible for the production of mono and sesquiterpenes were tailored for enhanced production of these important organic volatiles. In these studies, the Cauliflower mosaic virus promoter (CaMV 35S) was used for the overexpression of the reductoisomerase DXR of the mevalonate MEP pathway in peppermint and a significantly higher (50%) increase in total essential oil production was

observed. The yields of cyclic monoterpenes were enhanced by overexpression of limonene synthase enzyme in the plastid. The overexpression of the rate-limiting factors enhanced significantly the specific yield of monoterpenes [37]. It is crucial in some instances to enhance the yield of specific compounds of interest such as the monoterpenes  $\alpha$ -pinene and d-limonene which are suitable alternatives to the hazardous chemicals. Thus the *in vitro* cultures through a genetic transformation in plants can boost the production of the desired compounds [45]. For instance, the production of monoterpene alcohols can be accelerated by the over expression of linalool synthase, the enzyme responsible for the profound production of glycosylated forms than the free form. Likewise, overexpression of prenyl transferase has been found to increase the yields of the linear as well as some cyclic sesquiterpenes [43].

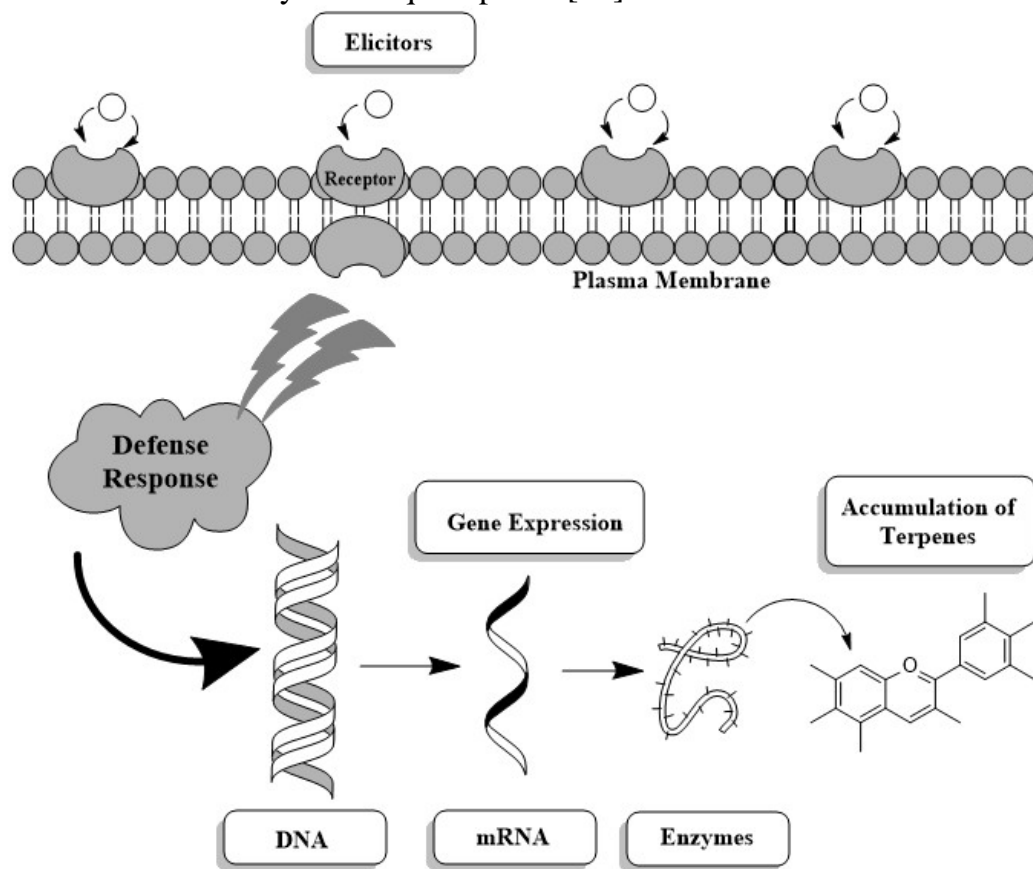


Fig.6. Impacts of elicitors on gene expression, secondary metabolism and production of terpenes in plant cell cultures.

## Conclusion

The major monoterpenes derived from essential oils have proven their potential as green solvents of becoming alternatives to petroleum-based solvents in various industrial

applications. The limited productivity of these volatiles in the natural plants could not meet the higher market demand of the potent volatiles in industrial applications. Biotechnological methods through manipulation of plant cell cultures in many medicinal and aromatic plants have improved the yield of essential oils. The recent advancements through genetic engineering of the metabolic pathways have resulted in the enhanced biosynthesis of terpene volatiles. However, further research studies should focus on the application of metabolomics and transcriptomic approaches to increment further the yield of essential oils in plants.

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## Chapter 2

# Ionic Liquids as a Green Solvent for Lipase-Catalyzed Reactions

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### Abstract

Enzymes are important contributors to the current industrial development as they activate the reactions through enormous pathways. In recent years, ionic liquids (ILs) have become qualified media for clean extraction, photochemistry, green processing, electro-synthesis, and pharmaceutical applications. Although many enzymes have been studied in ILs media, lipases showed exceptional stability, selectivity and production yields. This chapter briefly outlines some merit as well as the downsides of current ILs applications in lipases reactions including the production of biodiesel, esterification and other established applications.

### Keywords

Ionic Liquids, Lipase, Biocatalysts, Biodiesel, Transesterification

### List of abbreviations

#### Cations

1-heptyl-3-methylimidazolium	[C <sub>7</sub> MIM]
1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium	[BMIM]
1-hexyl-3-methylimidazolium	[C <sub>6</sub> MIM]
1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium	[EMIM]
1-dodecyl-3-methylimidazolium	[C <sub>12</sub> MIM]
1-penty-3-methylimidazolium	[PMIM]
1-ethyl-2,3-dimethylimidazolium	[EDMIM]
1-hexadecyl-3-methylimidazolium	[C <sub>16</sub> MIM]



1-hexyl-3-methyl-imidazolium	[HMIM]	
N-octadecyl-N',N'',N'''-trimethylammonium		[C <sub>18</sub> tma]
N-methyl-N-propanolpyrrolidinium	[C <sub>1</sub> C <sub>3</sub> OH <sub>2</sub> Pyr]	
vinyl-3-ethylimidazolium	[veim]	
3-methyl-2-(1-sulfobutyl)-1H-imidazolium		[BSO <sub>3</sub> HMIM]
1-hexyl-3-methylimidazolium	[C <sub>6</sub> mim]	
1-methyl-3-octylimidazolium	[OMIM]	
1-butyl-3-methylpyridinium	[Bm <sup>+</sup> py]	
1-alkyl-3-methylimidazolium	[RMI]	

### Anions

tetrafluoroborate	[BF <sub>4</sub> ]
trifluoromethanesulfonate	[CF <sub>3</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> ]
chloride	[Cl]
bromide	[Br]
hexafluorophosphate	[PF <sub>6</sub> ]
acesulfamate	[Ace]
saccharinate	[Sac]
bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide	[Tf <sub>2</sub> N]
methylsulfate	[MS]
trifluoromethanesulfonate	[TfO]
bis(trifluoromethyl sulfonyl)imide	HTf <sub>2</sub> N
acetate	[OAc]
methanesulfonate	[MeSO <sub>3</sub> ]
bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide	[TFSI]
hydrogensulfate	[HSO <sub>4</sub> ]

### Other abbreviations

Heteropoly anion-based Brønsted acidic ILs	HPA-ILs
Poly (1-vinylimidazole-based)	P(VB-VS)
N,N-dimethyl-N-(3-sulfopropyl) cyclohexylammonium hydrogen sulfate ([Ps-N-Ch(Me) <sub>2</sub> ][HSO <sub>4</sub> ])	
N,N-dimethyl-N-(3-sulfopropyl) cyclohexylammoniumtosylate ([Ps-N-Ch(Me) <sub>2</sub> ][p-TSA])	
<i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> lipase	BCL
porcine pancreatic lipase	PPL
<i>Rhizopus delemar</i> lipase	RhDL
<i>Penicillium expansum</i> lipase	PEL
<i>Thermoanaerobacter thermohydrosulfuricus</i> lipase	TTL
<i>Candida rugosa</i> lipase	CRL
<i>Candida antarctica</i> lipase B	CALB
free fatty acids methyl esters	FAMES
deep eutectic solvents	DESs
sugar fatty acids ester	SFAE

3-amino-propyltriethoxysilane	(APTES-Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> )
Ionic liquids	ILs
Ethanol	EtOH
Tetrahydrofuran	THF

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## 1. Introduction

Enzymes are biocatalysts which are widely contributing to enhancing the yield and speeding up the reaction rates in many industrial processes. Enzymes have the potential to function efficiently in supercritical fluids, organic solvents and any other aqueous environment which extends the technology perspectives of enzymes [1]. Organic solvents are not being a matter of concern due to their reasonable price, however, their contribution to the pollution due to toxicity, environmental concerns, volatility, and physical hazards, should be diminished. There is an urgency for researchers and industries to find alternatives to the conventional solvents used in industrial applications [2]. Considering these issues, ionic liquids (ILs) became a competitor with organic solvents as alternatives and attractive eco-friendly substitute due to their featured physicochemical merits [3].

The question of what an ionic liquid (IL) actually is, has been a topic of debate for a long time. The simple definition could be given as ‘a liquid salt consisting of ions and ion pairs’. However, when ILs are mentioned today, they are often looked upon as organic salts with a low melting point of 100 °C or lower and also known as room temperature ionic liquids (RTILs). RTILs possessing highly desired properties have attracted a broad range of developments as well as research [4].

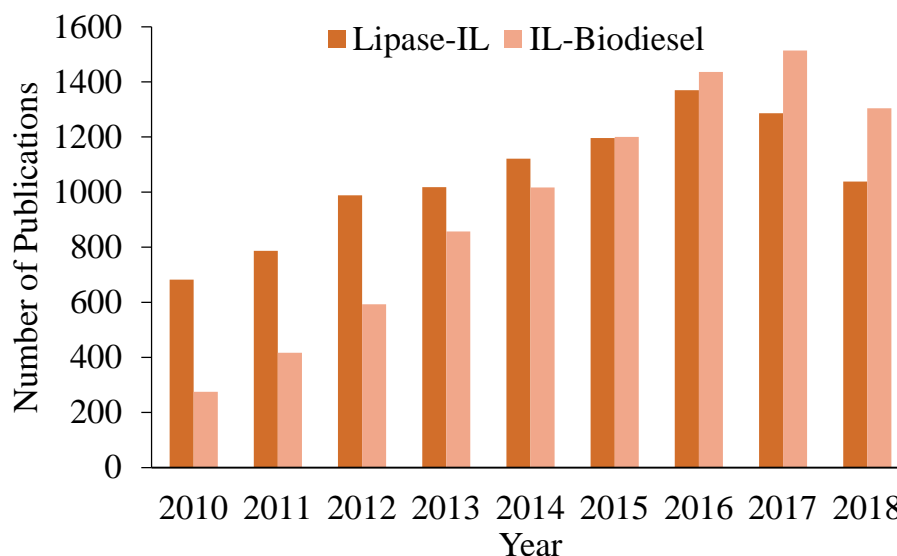
ILs are ammonium, cholinium, imidazolium, pyridinium, pyrrolidinium, phosphonium and morpholinium derivatives combined with mineral or organic anions [5]. The physicochemical properties of ILs such as viscosity, density, hydrophobicity, and solubility can be tuned by proper selection of their components to adjust for certain applications. Therefore, ILs are regarded as “designer solvents” [1].

ILs have been applied in many fields including electro-synthesis, green processes, catalysts, fuel cells membrane batteries, lubricants, separation agents, nanomaterials synthesis, nucleophilic substitution reactions and biochemical transformations [6]. Accordingly, due to the adaptable properties of ILs, enzymes display better activity and prolonged stability. For illustration, *n*-heptane was substituted with IL in *Candida antarctica* lipase B system. The lipase was stabilized by the ionic liquid, 1-heptyl-3-methylimidazolium bis((trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl) imide [C<sub>7</sub>MIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] due to the low nucleophilicity of the anion and the hydrophobic asset of the IL [7]. Enzymes such as lipases and proteases were reported to be thermally stable in ILs. Few suggestions on the stability were demonstrated. For instance, Sivapragasam et al. [5] conveyed that the chemical and structural stabilities of DNA and proteins may be boosted by IL, which can be reflected by the capability in the processing of biomass, transformation and catalytic processes [8]. Additionally, a wide range of enzymatic processes has been achieved in IL

media, for example, aminolysis, alcoholysis, hydrolysis, esterification, and polymerization [5].

Enzymatic-aided reactions and whole-cell reactions have been performed in ILs. In many occasions, it was denoted that exceptional enzyme stability, yields, selectivity were achieved in IL media. Novozym® 435 (an immobilized lipase B from *Candida antarctica* (CALB) was stable in IL. Likewise, few oxidoreductases, such as D-amino acid oxidase, chloroperoxidase, peroxidase, and laccase were reported [9]. Lipases are very effective in chemical reactions as they are tolerant, capable to catalyze varied reactions such as epoxidation, esterification, and transesterification, and easier to obtain over other enzymes [10]. The current applications of lipases in IL media have established many advantages, such as better enzyme recyclability, high selectivity and excellent conversion rate [11]. However, most lipases display certain drawbacks when applied in specific reactions due to their sensitivity to the reaction media and the ability to operate in mild conditions [12]. In recent years, reports to explore the features that can be applied in serving the technology and the research interest are expanding (*Figure 1*).

In this context, lipases demonstrated improved stability in ILs in contrast to traditional solvents [5]. This chapter briefly outlines some merits as well as the downsides of recent applications of ILs in lipase-catalyzed reactions. The limitations and the recommendations for the ILs to be regarded as ‘green solvents’ in chemical and biochemical reactions are also discussed.



*Figure 1. Number of articles published from “Scopus” by using keywords “Ionic liquids and lipase” as well as “Ionic liquids and biodiesel” during the 2010-2018 (September) period.*

## 2. Lipases: An overview

Enzymes catalyze a wide range of processes best in aqueous media and at particular pH with exquisite selectivity and stereospecificity. Among enzymes families, lipase is a vital component in the modern industry due to the capability of lipases from diverse sources to catalyze synthesis and hydrolysis reactions such as transesterification and esterification, depending on the thermodynamic conditions [13]. Lipases are, therefore, broadly distributed among microorganisms, plants and higher animals, where they are involved in the lipid's metabolism and can be extracted intracellularly or extracellularly. Lipases' catalytic mechanism involves a nucleophilic attack by the hydroxyl group of serine towards the substrate's carbonyl group, which generates an acyl-enzyme intermediate stabilized by an oxyanion hole. [14].

*Table 1. Lipase applications in industry.*

Category	Application	Ref.
Food industry	Bread enhancers to increase bread texture, color volume and shelf-life. Oil and fat restructuring Milk fat's hydrolysis, modification of butter fat, cheese ripening Synthesis of flavoring agents and emulsifiers Improving meat and fish flavors.	[15]
Chemical and Fuel industry	Synthesis of esters and emulsifiers Biodiesel production Formulation of detergents (oil stains removal for cleaning purpose). Transesterification of oils Reagents for lipid analysis. Hydrolysis of oils and fats to obtain monoacylglycerols, diacylglycerols and fatty acids.	[14] [15]
Cosmetics and perfumes	Esterification for Skin and sun-tan creams, bath oil. Synthesis of fragrances Digestive aids, sugar-based surfactants, specialty lipids Chiral synthesis intermediates	[14]
Pharmaceutical	Hydrolysis of polyester alcohols in the manufacturing of medicine; digestive aids	[15]
Other industries	Improving the quality of papers by removing the pitch from the pulp produced for papermaking	[16]

The excellent stability and capability of lipases to catalyze synthesis coupled with the catalytic polyvalence (catalytic promiscuity), have generated many industrial applications and a lot of research and development work. Certainly, lipases may function on broad range of substrates and can be introduced in few forms (native enzymatic powder,

immobilized on supportive materials, liquid or solid). Consequently, they are used in various applications as presented in *Table 1*.

### 3. ILs in enzymatic reactions: Advantages and merits

ILs are generally regarded as ‘green solvents’ although some have been reported to be toxic. Regardless, the green feature enabled the substitutional potential for conventional solvents. As they have negligible vapor pressure, ILs do not evaporate, and therefore, they abolish the environmental complications that are caused by volatile solvents [17]. Moreover, ILs can serve as media for the synthesis of several types of inorganic and organic materials. The advantages of ILs are shown in *Table 2*. With exceptional merits and properties, ILs can serve many applications due to the tunable structure with regards to the anions, cations and the side chain on the cation [18].

*Table 2. Advantages of ionic liquids (ILs) in lipase-catalyzed reactions*

Property	Merits	Ref.
Almost infinite possibilities of structural alteration	A ‘designer solvents’ as the cation and anion groups can be tuned as desired based on the application E.g., promote extraction efficiency, alter the reaction rate, increase substrate solubility, enhance lipase stability and reactivity. Adjustable physical and chemical properties.	[21]
Low melting point (<100 °C)	Extraordinary solubilization power of very hydrophobic substances in water. Facilitates product separation. Facilitates a new class of non-aqueous solvents with improved polarity.	[22]
Non-volatile with negligible vapor pressure	ILs do not evaporate at ambient conditions. ILs are non-flammable They are less toxic and readily recyclable.	[1]
High thermal stability	ILs remain liquid at wide range of temperatures ILs do not decompose at high temperatures.	[23]
Water-immiscible ILs	Provide a polar substitute with non-aqueous nature for biphasic system. Decrease the rate of deactivation.	[24]
Dissolve a wide range of natural and synthetic materials	Enhanced products, enzyme and substrates solubility. Allow lipase reactions in highly polar systems. ILs are suitable solvents for several kinds of inorganic, organic, ganometallic polymeric substances, small molecules.	[25]
Positive effect on enzymes	Enzyme activation and stabilization. Constructive influence on the reaction equilibrium or the enzyme’s specificity Enhance lipase performance in solvent	[26]
Recyclability and reusable	Reduce energy use and cost of operation. Eco-friendly. Allow the reuse of lipases.	[27]

The uses of ILs have been conveyed from various industrial applications. For instance, ILs are known to serve as a potential catalyst in biodiesel production due to their merits, such as ease of separation, safe handling, fewer effluents to the surrounding, apt for continuous reaction and recyclability [19]. Moreover, in biodiesel formation system, ILs offer protection from deactivation induced by methanol. Generally, short-chains; 1,3-dialkylimidazolium cations such as 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide [BMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] or 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>], are used in the biocatalysis synthesis of biodiesel in a biphasic system [20].

#### **4. ILs properties and featured characteristics in lipase stabilization**

ILs have been signifying their capabilities as a medium for many enzymatic processes, as a result of their merits. Enzymatic reactions are environmentally friendly processes which require lower temperature, high selectivity, and specificity. In this context, industrial processes that involve enzymes are auspicious resources towards clean manufacturing [28]. Nevertheless, lipolytic synthesis requires the use of non-aqueous solvents to dissolve a sufficient quantity of the substrate for the reaction to occur. Moreover, there is no complete understanding and basis of the enzyme's activity and stability predictions in ILs.

The choice of ILs may not be as simple as it looks, as they may have a negative impact on the enzymes. For instance, most enzymes could face an irreversible deactivation due to the strong hydrogen bonds (H-bonds) formation with the anions of ILs [28]. Hence, an alteration in cation or anion is reported to affect the IL's physiochemical properties which influence the enzymatic process through either stabilizing of the enzyme, activation, or structural modification [29]. Furthermore, the enzyme's stability or activity may be adapted by either tuning the ILs to diminish the deactivation effect or improving the enzyme tolerance in the ILs. It is therefore important to understand the enzyme's activation approach in ILs.

The IL's specificity towards stabilization, unfolding, refolding of various proteins and their activities have demonstrated by several studies. ILs were described as biotransformation media for enzymes such as cellulases and lipases, which occur if the enzymes are thermostable. Based on the Anfinsen hypothesis, the sum of interatomic interactions and the sequences of amino acids determine the three-dimensional (3D) and thermodynamically-stable native protein's structure in its regular physiological state [30].

ILs are superior compared to organic solvents due to the enzyme's stability improvement in the enzyme-catalyzed reactions [30]. This particularly applies in regard to the

thermostability of the created system. For the synthesis of biodiesel, recycling the enzyme is also desirable when using IL to substitute organic solvents [31]. This is alongside with the low volatility characteristic that prevents the evaporation of ILs at the room temperature [31]. Quite a few enzymes have been recognized by their compatibility with certain types of ILs. For instance, *Candida rugosa* lipase (CRL) and *Candida Antarctica* lipase B (CALB) exhibited higher thermostability in the presence of ILs and therefore, the bioprocesses can occur at elevated temperatures if required [32].

#### **4.1 Stabilization and activation of lipases in ionic liquids (ILs)**

The novelty of using lipases in ILs media to enhance the catalytic activity is a promising and advanced approach, however, it comes with several encounters. On the other hand, a variety of ILs was compatible with lipases regardless of their microbial source [31]. This was also supported by the fact that hydrophilic ILs do not deactivate lipase but rather dissolve the lipase and form a biphasic phase that confines the retrieval of the enzyme and ILs for successive recycle, as ILs possess high polarity [33].

The interactions between *Candida rugosa* (CRL) and imidazolium or cholinium-based ILs have been investigated by Guncheva et al. [34] where the anions were based on amino acids (Leu, Trp, Thr, Val, Met, Ile, Gly). They suggested that these ILs resulted in structural rearrangements of the protein molecule which enables the enzyme's active site to be available for the substrate. Moreover, CRL displayed higher thermal stability in 1-methyl-3-octylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate [OMIM] [PF<sub>6</sub>] than in hexane [35].

Zhao et al. [36] have prepared ether-functionalized ILs with acetate or formate anions; that are capable to dissolve a variety of substances and are also compatible with lipase. The prepared ILs dissolve oils at 50 °C; where lipases upheld its activity even in high concentration (50%, v/v) of methanol. The soybean oil transesterification in IL-methanol mixture showed the likelihood of ILs for lipase-stabilizing and oil-dissolving in the effective biodiesel production.

Another study reported by Schöfer et al. [37] revealed that the IL-lipase suspensions were stable and may as well be recycled for three cycles while losing only less than 10% of activity. Upon assessment, lipase (*Candida antarctica* lipase B) had 10-fold increment in the activity in [BMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] and 1-butyl-3-methylpyridinium tetrafluoroborate [Bmpy][BF<sub>4</sub>]. Furthermore, this established the argument that the enantioselectivity of lipases, generally, has a lesser value in hydrophilic IL than in hydrophobic ILs.

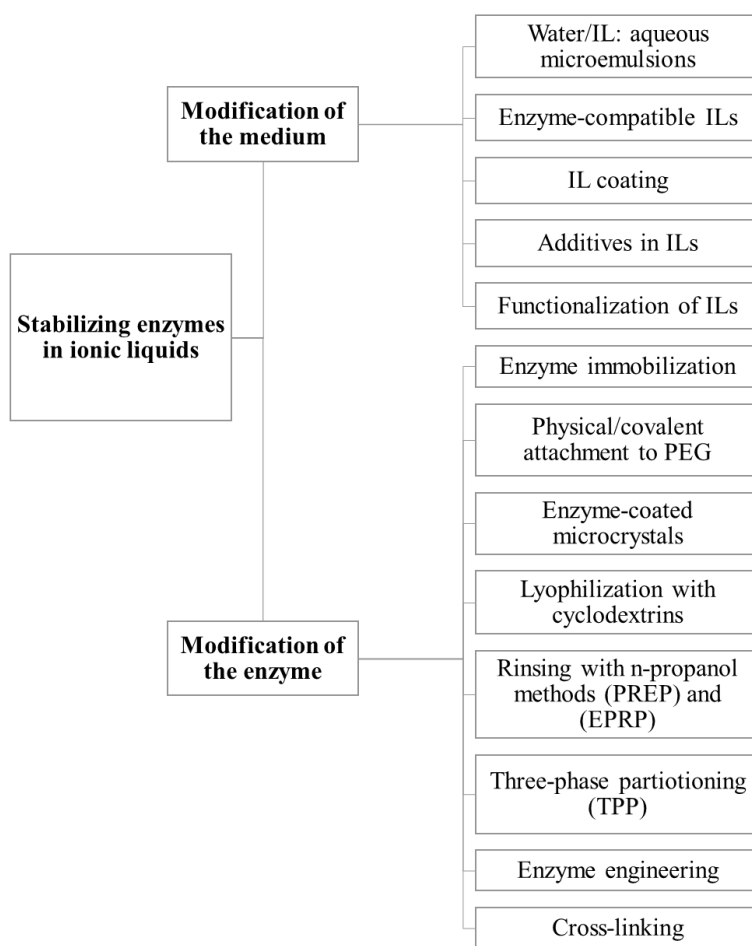
It has been recognized that long alkyl chains resulted in the increment of hydrophobicity of ILs. Various ILs with assorted cations and anions have shown the IL inhibition capability when the hydrophobicity of ILs increased. For instance, 1-butyl-3-



methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate [BMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] exhibited the minimal inhibition of lipase activity, where 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium trifluoromethanesulfonate [BMIM][CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] had a strong inhibitory effect, while 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride [BMIM][Cl] acted as medium inhibitor. It was concluded that for the ILs with the same cation but different anions, the hydrophobicity, and hydrogen bond ability influence their inhibiting action, while the hydrophobicity increment is associated with the inhibition capacity if the same anion was used [38]. It can be suggested that more stable and active biocatalysts can be obtained by integrating IL with enzymes, owing to the protective effect of IL towards lipases to encounter the deactivation in many cases.

## 4.2 Methods of stabilization of lipases in ILs

Several methods have been to stabilize enzymes in IL media including chemical and physical alteration of the enzymes and the modification of the IL itself, as summarized in *Figure 2*. Examples of stabilization are elaborated in *Table 3*.



*Figure 2. Methods for enzymes stabilization in ILs, summarized from [32].*

*Table 3. Examples of lipase activation and modification in ILs for stability enhancement.*

<b>Lipase</b>	<b>Method of stabilization</b>	<b>Ionic liquid</b>	<b>Enzyme performance</b>	<b>Ref.</b>
<i>Candida rugosa</i> lipase	IL-Coating	Tetraethylammonium <i>L</i> -asparaginate and tetraethylammonium <i>L</i> -histidinate	Catalysis esterification of fatty acids and oleyl alcohol in hexane. The coated lipase displayed an improved activity than the free lipase.	[39]
<i>Candida rugosa</i> lipase (VII)	Functionalization of IL	<i>N</i> -methyl- <i>N</i> -propanolpyrrolidiniumbis (trifluoromethanesulphonyl)imide [C <sub>1</sub> C <sub>3</sub> OHPyr]Tf <sub>2</sub> N	By prolonging the reaction time from 2 to 6 h, high yield of biodiesel could be obtained for the recovered lipase.	[40]
<i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> (BCL)	Physical adsorption on aerogel modified with protic ionic liquid	<i>N</i> -methylmonoethanolamine pentanoate	BCL immobilized on aerogel-IL showed an improved thermostability than free and BCL immobilized on original support material. Formed a stable and active biocatalyst.	[41]
<i>Candida rugosa</i> lipase	IL-compatibility	[BMIM][MS] and [BMIM][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	5% of [BMIM][MS] enhanced the enantioselectivity (E) of lipase by a factor of 50	[42]

Porcine pancreatic lipase (PPL)	Immobilization on Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> -Chitosan nanocomposites functionalized with ILs	Imidazolium-based ILs	Improved activity, stability, and reusability of immobilized PPL	[43]
<i>Candida rugosa</i> lipase	Micro-encapsulation	(1-Vinyl-3-ethylimidazolium bis (trifluoromethylsulfonyl amide) ([veim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N])	Excellent stability of IL-encapsulated-lipase	[44]

Stabilization and activation of enzymes in ILs through immobilization on solid supports via a covalent linkage, cross-linkage, physical contact or encapsulation, are the most common approaches. For instance, *Burkholderia cepacia* lipase (BCL) immobilized with hydrophobic IL (N-methylmonoethanolamine pentanoate) at 1.0% (w/v) demonstrated an increase of 35 times in comparison with lipase without IL. The IL-lipase system yielded 46.2% ethyl esters production from triglycerides [45]. IL can also act as an agent for the immobilization of enzymes to enhance their activity. A significant improvement in the lipase activity was recorded when the enzyme was coated by RTSPILs (room-temperature solid phase ionic liquids) [46]. The RTSPILs are solid ILs below or near the room temperature and these can be used as a support matrix for immobilizing the enzymes via physical adsorption. The enzymes immobilized on RTSPIL may offer better effectiveness than immobilizing on the regular support materials, due to the specific influence of ILs' charge on the enzyme molecule. Hence, the hydrophobic RTSPILs have been auspicious support in immobilization technology [47].

Miao et al. [48] have synthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles by chemical co-precipitation using the template as 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate [BMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>]. The Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles treated with 3-amino-propyltriethoxysilane (APTES-Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) were used as carriers for the lipase (*Candida antarctica*), in combination with glutaraldehyde as a coupling reagent. The lipase displayed good diffusion in rapeseed oil and methanol. Moreover, an external magnetic field can quickly separate the magnetic nanoparticles from the solution for reuse. Likewise, porcine pancreatic lipase (PPL) immobilized on magnetic chitosan nanocomposites modified with IL preserved 91.5% of the initial activity after ten repetitive cycles [43].

Coating of the lipase with IL can induce significant alteration in the secondary structure. Stabilities and catalytic efficiencies of *Candida rugosa* lipase (CRL) and *Rhizopus delemar* lipase (RhDL) were reformed in IL containing a non-nutritive sweetener as an anion, such as acesulfamate or saccharinate (5% (w/v) 1-butyl-3-methylimidazoliumacesulfamate [BMIM][Ace] and 1-butyl-3-

methylimidazoliumsaccharinate[BMIM][Sac] [49]. Also, tuning the ILs components; the cations and anions seem to improve the stability of the enzyme. A study of hydrophilic IL by Solhtalab et al. [50] highlighted the effect of the length of alkyl chain of  $[C_n\text{MIM}][\text{Br}]$  on the activity of *Thermoanaerobacter thermohydrosulfuricus* lipase (TTL). The maximum activity of TTL was recorded in 1.0 M 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide [BMIM][Br], 0.3 M 1-hexyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide  $[C_6\text{MIM}][\text{Br}]$  and 0.3 M 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide [EMIM][Br], whereby no noteworthy response was detected in 1-dodecyl-3-methylimidazolium Bromide  $[C_{12}\text{MIM}][\text{Br}]$ , which showed that hydrophilic ILs have positively affected the activity.

## 5. Factors influencing IL-lipase reactions

The proper selection of the IL for the application as solvents or co-solvents for enzymatic reactions is crucial. Some key factors related to ILs such as composition, polarity, viscosity, temperature, pH, and water content have been documented in the literature and explored by many researchers. Some of these factors are discussed below.

### 5.1 IL composition

ILs anions have nucleophilicity properties and can form hydrogen bonds (H-bonds) based on their properties and structures. Therefore, the anions could influence enzymes' stability and activity by the strong interaction with the enzyme and resulting in conformational changes [51]. For instance, the stability of CALB was investigated by He and coworkers [52] in imidazolium-based IL with various cations and anions. Their study showed that lipase could retain the activity after reusing for five times in hydrophobic ILs such as [EMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N], 1-penty-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate [PMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] and 1-ethyl-2,3-dimethylimidazolium bis((trifluoromethyl) sulfonyl) imide [EDMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] whereas lipase's activities in organic solvents and hydrophilic ILs were severely reduced. They observed that the highest lipase's activity was detected in [EDMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N], where no activity was detected in imidazolium-based IL with long chain cations.

On the other hand, a mixture of hydrophobic and hydrophilic ILs positively affect both the stability and activity of an enzyme. Lipase from *Candida rugosa* was co-immobilized with a mixture of two ILs whereby the hydrolysis and esterification activities of the immobilized lipase were greater by 14-fold than in silica gel without IL, respectively. The highest stability of immobilized lipase was attained in 1-hexadecyl-3-methylimidazolium bis((trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl) imide  $[C_{16}\text{MIM}][\text{Tf}_2\text{N}]$ , the hydrophobic IL [53]. The effect of IL's structures based on  $[\text{BF}_4]^-$ ,  $[\text{Tf}_2\text{N}]^-$  and  $[\text{PF}_6]^-$  anions and 1-alkyl-3-methylimidazolium ( $[C_n\text{MIM}]^+$ ) cation, on the CALB was

investigated by Wang et al. [54]. They demonstrated that the occurrence of fewer than six carbons in the alkyl chain of the cation would correspond to the IL's hydrophobicity and lipase activity. They found that additional increment in the chain length impaired the activity of CALB. The enzyme activity depending on the nature of anion was in the order  $[\text{BF}_4]^- < [\text{PF}_6]^- < [\text{Tf}_2\text{N}]^-$ .

## 5.2 IL polarity

All probable intermolecular interactions, either specific or nonspecific, between the solvent and the solute that is not resulting in chemical alteration, have been found to be dependent on the polarity of ILs [55]. The basicity of hydrogen bonds is an additional factor that may influence the activity of enzymes. The polarity of an IL is similar to formamide or the alcohols with a fewer number of carbon atoms [56]. In addition, ILs with non-coordinating anions such as  $[\text{PF}_6]^-$  and  $[\text{Tf}_2\text{N}]^-$  have lower polarity than alcohols with fewer carbon atoms as shown by the solvatochromic study. High polar solvents promote the polar substances' solubility and result in more selective and faster reactions [51].

Several studies have investigated the enzyme stability and conversion process in terms of polarity influence. Zhao et al. [57] have reported that the stability of enzymes by IL may be described from enzyme dissolution and substrate steady-state stabilization by IL. They have tested a group of imidazolium-based ILs such as  $[\text{OMIM}][\text{BF}_4]$ ,  $[\text{HMIM}][\text{Cl}]$ ,  $[\text{BMIM}][\text{Br}]$ ,  $[\text{EMIM}][\text{PF}_6]$ ,  $[\text{BMIM}][\text{BF}_4]$   $[\text{EMIM}][\text{Br}]$ . Their study revealed that the polarity variances between the ILs did not directly affect the lipase activity.

In general, the enzyme's activity can be enhanced by increasing the IL's polarity. For example, the *Pseudomonas cepacia* lipase exhibited higher activity in the racemic 1-phenyl ethanol acetylation with vinyl acetate in IL. The initial reaction rate in more polar IL,  $[\text{EMIM}][\text{BF}_4]$ , was 3-fold faster than in the less polar IL,  $[\text{BMIM}][\text{PF}_6]$  [58].

Ha et al. [52] on the other hand, observed that  $[\text{BMIM}][\text{BF}_4]$  had a less stabilizing effect on Novozym 435® (lipase acrylic resin from *Candida antarctica*) in comparison with other hydrophobic ILs. Few more studies have suggested that hydrophilic ILs such as  $[\text{EMIM}][\text{BF}_4]$ ,  $[\text{BMIM}][\text{BF}_4]$  and  $[\text{BMIM}][\text{BF}_4]$  comparatively displayed high activities. The anion polarity rates acetate as the highest and  $[\text{PF}_6]^-$  as the lowest. Meanwhile, the cation polarity depends on the chains or branches attached to the charged center, with less polarity for octyl (8C) than a methyl (1C) group. The declining polarity for cations can be ordered as ammonium > imidazolium > pyridinium > pyrrolidinium, with identical substituents on the cations [59].

Studies have shown that enzyme activity can be possibly linked with the strength of the anion's hydrogen-bond acceptor whereby enzyme stabilization could be a result of low basicity of hydrogen-bond anions [60]. Nevertheless, the cations role cannot be neglected on the overall performance and properties of ILs. Concurrently, we may deduce that the lipase activity and stability may not depend only on the IL polarity, but also on the structure of the enzyme and the amino acids in the active site which may display different charges in different polarities and H-bond strength.

### 5.3 IL viscosity

ILs have viscosities that are higher than regular organic solvents due to comprehending van der Waals interactions, the H-bonding and/or ion-ion interactions. In this respect, ILs' viscosities have shown to generally rise with the elongation of the cation's alkyl chain for the same anion due to the stronger force of van der Waals [51]. IL's viscosity influences the enzymatic reaction mechanism. The reaction rate may be influenced by the viscosity in terms of the limitation of mass transfer. It is rational that high IL's viscosity affects the structure and the activity of the enzyme by slowing down the conformational transformations. However, this does not apply to all biocatalytic reactions that take place in IL [26]. In general, ILs with less viscosity, hydrophobic in nature, chaotropic cation and kosmotropic anion have shown better enzymatic activity and stability. However, there is no universal rule due to many contrary reports to generalize the trend. Despite some contrary results, CALB has catalyzed the transesterification of *n*-butanol and ethyl butyrate in more than 20 ILs which endorsed the effect of the IL's viscosity on the rate of reaction [57].

The high viscosity results in a great mass transfer tolerance, which hampers the contact between the enzyme and substrates or among the substrates, which result in a slower reaction rate [61]. For instance, Novozym 435 was used in ILs "1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium methylsulfate [EMIM][MS], 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium trifluoromethanesulfonate [EMIM][TfO], [OMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N],", with a solvent-free medium and *tert*-butanol, whereby free fatty acids methyl esters (FAMEs) conversion in *tert*-butanol was about 65.8% but decreased after that. The conversion in [EMIM][TfO] was 80% after 12 h, which is 15% greater in IL than in *tert*-butanol, although the viscosity of [EMIM][TfO] (42.7 cP) is ten times higher in contrast to *tert*-butanol (4.312 cP) [62].

It is denoted that long long alkyl chains with imidazolium ring have a larger value of viscosity, though an influence may result from the anions as well.

## 5.4 pH

The pH value plays a vital role in lipase activity in non-aqueous enzymatic catalysis, by ruling the amino acid residues located at the active site of the enzyme. Amino acids are neutral, positively charged or negatively charged molecules, hence, change in pH of the medium affects the charges and thereby the enzyme activity and the rate of the reaction. Therefore, enzymes require a certain pH to function properly.

In this context, Rios et al. [63] have reported a better yield of ethylene glycol esters during synthesis by CALB and IL system at pH 7.0. On the other hand, low pH values resulted in the protonation of amino acids residues in *Candida rugosa* lipase at the positions (His449 and Glu341), which enabled the nucleophilic attack by Ser209 oxygen from the substrate's carbon, consequently leading to lipase activity reduction [63]. Generally, enzyme-organic reactions depend much on pH of the medium where the enzyme reaction occurs. The pH varies upon varying the water content of the reaction system and solvents type, in which both affect the local polarity and the enzyme's active site. An IL-reaction medium would act similarly, which might be a tedious issue due to the IL's polar and ionic nature. Due to the changes in IL composition, IL may have potentials to alter the pH of the medium. Moreover, the availability of water in the reaction system might result in the decomposition of some ILs and hence, lower the enzymes' activity and stability [64].

The bis(trifluoromethyl sulfonyl)imide (HTf<sub>2</sub>N-IL) has higher acidity than both [BMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] and [BMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>]. The pH of the medium not only depends on the nature of the enzyme but rather on the IL composition. The occurrence of [BMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] as an additive was assessed with immobilized *Bacillus sp.* ITP-001 lipase, at 37 °C in the pH range of 3.0–9.0 during a hydrolysis reaction. The IL addition significantly stabilized the optimal pH for the enzyme. CRL has an optimal pH of 7.2 which dropped to 7.0 in IL medium. The enzyme activity dropped to 30 – 40% in contrast with the optimum value of pH is acidic (lower than 6.0). On the other hand, when the pH was higher than 8.0, no activity was detected [65].

In actual fact, the IL systems with different cations and same anion changed the enzymatic activity similarly as the pH changed. Rather, IL systems with the same cation and different anions behave contrarily towards the enzyme activity as pH shifted. This implies that the pH influence on lipase activity in hydrolytic reactions highly relies on IL's anion.

## 5.5 Water content

The amount of water in IL systems is known to impact the activity and efficiency of the enzymatic reactions. Enzymes are suspended in reaction media at low water content as they are not soluble in most of the ILs [66]. It is an established fact that to facilitate the enzyme activity, a certain amount of water is required to increase the enzyme's active structural sites. Nevertheless, an additional amount of water has a destructive impact on the enzyme, whereby it facilitates the aggregation of the enzyme which reduces the diffusion of the substrate and results in enzyme inactivation. It has been observed that addition of a proper amount of water positively affected the yield of biodiesel, where the highest yield was attained when water content was in the range of 0.4–0.8 g; and an additional increment in water decreased the yield. The initial water content is critical in reactions involving enzymes. For instance, in biodiesel production, high content of water leads to the hydrolysis of ester instead of the synthesis. To illustrate the critical role of water content in an enzymatic reaction, the drying of the feedstock has been found critical to avoid oils and fats hydrolysis to free fatty acids (FFAs). The occurrence of FFAs resulted in the formation of soap and hindered in the purification of the products [67].

Enzymes are mainly inactive in dry media. However, the enzymatic reactions are likely to be enhanced if a small water quantity is introduced into the non-aqueous medium. In this context, the major role for water is to ensure optimal activity of the enzyme. For instance, lipase displays higher activity in solvents with less polar nature and more hydrophobic property in most cases. Therefore, regulating the water level in enzymatic reactions is mandatory. The water content is usually recognized as thermodynamic water activity ( $a_w$ ) [68].

For *C. rugosa* lipase, Ulbert et al. [35] ranked the solvents with optimal water content as hexane < toluene < [ONIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] < [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] < [BMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] which is in harmony with reducing the solvent's polarity. A solvent has higher propensity to strip off the water from the enzyme's surrounding when it becomes more polar. ILs have a better capacity to hold water as they possess high polarity. Two common approaches have been used to maintain the water activity in the system; (i) pre-equilibrium stage separation of the enzyme and substrate solution using a saturated aqueous mineral solution, or (ii) an aqueous buffer preparation by adding a hydrated salt to the reaction. When a hydrated salt occurs in the non-aqueous system, it may influence the activity of the enzyme through water buffering and specific effects, which are vital for the enzyme to function optimally. The solvent's requirement of water determines the controlling effect of each role. Therefore, using hydrated salt to regulate the water activity in the biocatalytic IL system should be applied with extreme caution [68].



The initial activity of lipase (CALB) was lower in 1-hexyl-3-methylimidazolium [C<sub>6</sub>mim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] in almost anhydrous medium ( $a_w=0.17$ ), while the highest enzyme activity was obtained at  $a_w=0.28$ . Further increase in the water activity leads to a reduction in enzyme activity. It is suggested that catalytic activity of the enzyme is associated with the absorption of water molecules on the protein's surface; however, in high water activity system, for instance, during vinyl *n*-octanoate hydrolysis, the enzyme gathered easily and resulted in the hydrolysis in the presence of water [54].

When the whole cells of *Rhizopus oryzae* were used in a transesterification reaction, there was a reduction in the yield of biodiesel when the water content rises from 5 to 10%. The reaction rate was at its maximum when 10% of water content was set, whereby at higher than 10% water content, lower rate was achieved with immobilized *Burkholderia* lipase. Thus, it can be resolved that the leverage effect between the unwanted side reactions and lipase activity maintenance with water content, requires being well-thought-out, particularly in lipase-catalyzed biodiesel production [61].

We may conclude that pure ILs act similarly as a polar organic solvent in which they devour essential water from the enzyme. Therefore, it is suggested that the appropriate level of water is critical to the catalytic activity of the enzyme in the IL system; to improve the enzymatic reactions over non-polar solvents.

## 5.6 Temperature and thermal stability

Temperature influences the activity of lipases significantly. IL-enzyme systems is affected by the temperature in a manner it mostly influences the enzyme's activity rather than the system as a whole. Nonetheless, the temperature has a significant effect on the IL viscosity and thus on the enzyme dissolution, in which it influences the activity.

The decomposition temperature attained from the thermo-gravimetric analysis (TGA) experimentally under vacuum, is used to assess the thermal stability of IL. Moderate but noteworthy decomposition of IL was denoted often by mass spectrometry. Also, weight losses were demoted at constant temperatures as different as 200 °C cooler than the "onset" TGA temperature [69].

In relevance to the temperature variation, a study on the enzyme's activity was reported by Yang et al. [68]. They have applied *Penicillium expansum* lipase (PEL) in transesterification and hydrolytic processes in the IL [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>]. Optimal temperature of 70 °C in the IL was recorded. The temperature of the reaction of lipases was in the range of 35–60 °C [61]. The IL, [C<sub>6</sub>mim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] was evaluated with CALB. The initial reaction rate ( $v_0$ ) of vinyl *n*-octanoate conversion increased remarkably at elevated temperatures. The enzyme was deactivated at elevated temperatures (above 60 °C),

resulting in reduced enantioselectivity and activity. The maximum conversion was achieved at 40 °C, while the highest enantioselectivity (> 400) was attained at lower temperatures (30–40 °C). The difference between *n*-hexane and IL at high temperature may be elucidated by the strong protective effect of IL against the enzyme's thermal inactivation [54]. Operating at higher temperatures minimizes the microbial contamination of the product and offers better solubility and homogenized mixtures of viscous plant oils and fats which are the natural substrates of lipase [70]. Apart from maintaining the lipases activity, reaction temperature affects the methanol loading as a result of evaporation which impacts the mass and heat transfer. During lipase-catalyzed reaction at high temperatures, the evaporation of alcohol donors shall also be considered [61].

We may also conclude that the reaction temperatures have a vital role in enzymatic reactions, by enhancing the reaction rate while at the same time, maintaining the enzyme activity.

## 5.7 Selectivity

Two conformations of lipases may be present: “open” (active) and “closed” (inactive). The two shapes exist because of structural rearrangements similar to those persuaded by substrates, depending on the medium of the reaction. Many lipases are enhanced in the non-polar solvents due to conformational modification [70].

ILs are designer solvents and could be adapted to fit in the desired reactions while enhancing the selectivity of the lipase towards the substrate. For instance, Lozano et al. [71] showed that [EMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] stabilized CALB with double of the half-life to 8.3 h at 50 °C. Continuous operations of CALB in [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] resulted in 2300 times greater half-life time and selectivity higher than 90%, than that recorded when the incubating the enzyme in the absence of substrate (3.2 h) [71]. Enantioselectivity is the selectivity of a reaction towards one of a pair of enantiomers. Enzymatic reactions performed in ILs have shown good enantioselectivity, high stability, better activity, and improved reaction rates. The enantioselectivity value was lesser in toluene than that in ILs, with [C<sub>6</sub>mim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] being the best reaction medium. The substrate structural difference justifies the enantioselectivity of enzyme-aided acylation in ILs. The enantioselectivity enhancement in IL may result from the high thermostability of enzymes in ILs [54]. The enzyme's enantioselectivity might be influenced by several factors, such as the structure of the substrate, the nature of the medium and the enzyme's thermostability. Therefore, no satisfactory explanations are available. Thus, more exploration shall be addressed to understand the selectivity mechanism of enzymes in IL.

## 5.8 Product purification

Being designer solvents, ILs have the tendency to reduce the formation of by-products and the occurrence of the processes side reactions. Therefore, these are preferred in synthesis and hydrolysis involving the use of enzymes. Product separation or downstream processing is a challenge of the industrial application. Researchers observed that crude biodiesel post-treatment through conventional methods resulted in separation complications, as multiple steps are essential to eliminate the glycerides, catalyst, alcohol, glycerol, and soap [67]. Moreover, in lipase-catalyzed reactions, the free lipase has a homogeneous nature, which leads to technical complications including non-reusability of biocatalysts and the difficulty in separation processes. For instance, the extraction of 1-butanol from aqueous solution is a measure of the potential of “bis[(trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl] amide-based” ILs as selective separating agents. A comparison between imidazolium-based and ammonium-based ILs resulted in the conclusion that few of them affect the distribution ratio and butan-1-ol/water selectivity [72]. In this context, and to facilitate the product purification, free lipase CALB was immobilized in magnetic nanoparticles functionalized with the IL, [BMIN]BF<sub>4</sub>. The products were collected after each reaction round via magnetic separation and then a new methanol and rapeseed oil were introduced to the reactor with the recycled immobilized lipase [48]. As a practical benefit, the efficient and facile separation of the solid catalyst was simply achieved by an external field of the magnet.

In industrial practice, ILs have demonstrated their merits through a few chemical manufacturing processes, including alkoxyphenolphospines production, which is a basic precursor for photoinitiator by BASF (BASIL<sup>TM</sup> process). In BASIL<sup>TM</sup> process, the reaction time was reduced significantly leading to a higher capacity. Moreover, the product separation from the IL and the catalyst was also easily achieved [73].

Lozano et al. [74] used Novozym® 435, lipase coupled with the hydrophobic IL, “N-octadecyl-N', N'', N'''-trimethylammonium bis (trifluoromethylsulfonyl) imide ([C<sub>18</sub>tma][Tf<sub>2</sub>N])” in the production of biodiesel from triolein. Enzyme's half-life was promoted up to 1370 days at 60 °C in the IL and the mixture of reaction was separated into pure biodiesel, solid IL and glycerol. Application of IL-based catalyst minimized the required steps in the preparation of biodiesel and separation which were the obstacles to develop an economically feasible process.

## 6. Lipases and ILs in lipids reactions

Lipases are major players in enzyme industries which include but not limited to synthesis of surfactants, biodiesel preparation, catalysts in hydrolyses, ester synthesis,

transesterification and inter esterification processes, foods, pharmaceutical, and cosmetics. Lipases thrive in diverse environments and therefore advanced as an auspicious catalytic agent for biotransformation reactions in ILs, deep eutectic solvents (DESs) and in organic solvents [75].

### 6.1 IL-lipase-catalyzed biodiesel synthesis

Biodiesel, considered as an eco-friendly substitute to current petroleum fuel, is the transesterification product of animal fats or vegetable oils and is regarded as a biodegradable and renewable biofuel and considered as an eco-friendly substitute to current petroleum fuel. The most commonly used catalysts for transesterification include acids, alkalis, chemical catalysts and lipases [40]. Other approaches include thermal cracking (pyrolysis), blending and microemulsion. Transesterification is the reaction of alcohol and carboxylic acid esters in the presence of a catalyst to produce FAMES and water. This process is influenced by several factors, mainly, temperature, alcohol/oil molar ratio, water content, free fatty acids, dosage and catalysts' type. The process is a three-step reversible process. During the transformation of triglycerides, diglycerides, monoglyceride, and then glycerol in the last phase, to generate one mole of ester in each step [17].

The use of ILs has unlocked new prospects to produce biodiesel via lipase-catalyzed process as the IL does not only serve as a solvent but also as a catalyst. Short-chain ILs such as [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] or [BMIM][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] are well-documented and carry the biocatalytic synthesis and have been used for biodiesel production in enormous instances. Acidic ILs based on “sulfonate-functionalized quaternary ammonium salts (N,N-dimethyl-N-(3-sulfopropyl) cyclohexylammonium hydrogen sulfate ([Ps-N-Ch(Me)<sub>2</sub>][HSO<sub>4</sub>]) and N,N-dimethyl-N-(3-sulfopropyl) cyclohexylammoniumtosylate ([Ps-N-Ch(Me)<sub>2</sub>][p-TSA]))” have been applied as catalysts for the biodiesel synthesis through *tung* oil transesterification with methanol; through which “[Ps-N-Ch(Me)<sub>2</sub>][p-TSA]” displayed the highest catalytic activity and yielded 98.98% of biodiesel, with five times reuse of the IL [76].

Hydrophobic imidazolium-ILs, are well-organized in the lipase-catalyzed synthesis of biodiesel. The competence of hydrophobic ILs is more than their corresponding hydrophilic peers owing to their protective action towards the enzyme from dissociation into the aqueous layer [77]. The most used lipase for biodiesel production is CALB which has been commercialized as (Novozym® 435) in an immobilized form. In general, both the hydrophobic and hydrophilic ILs have been tested in biodiesel production.. However, most of the studies reported that higher yield of FAME was attained in hydrophobic ILs in contrast with that obtained in organic solvents or solvent-free media.

The addition of [C<sub>1</sub>C<sub>3</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>Pyr][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] improved the biodiesel yield due to the miscibility of methanol with the IL, leading to the reduction in the inhibition level on the lipase, resulting in higher biodiesel yield [40]. Sunitha et al. [33] have reported biodiesel production from sunflower oil with the catalysis by Novozyme® 435 with two hydrophilic ILs [HMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] and [BMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] and two hydrophobic ILs [EMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] and [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>]. The yield of FAMEs was higher in the hydrophobic IL (98%) in both [EMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] and [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] compared to 10% of in [HMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>], and no yield was obtained in [BMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] (hydrophilic IL).

It was due to the fact that ILs are capable to provide a greater contact area between the lipase and the substrate (oil), which increases the enzymatic activity. In addition, the use of IL produces a biphasic system which facilitates the separation of the products at the the last stage of the reaction [78]. *Table 4* summarizes the uses of some ILs for biodiesel production by lipase-catalyzed systems.

*Table 4. Examples of lipase-catalyzed biodiesel production in ionic liquids with the optimum conditions.*

<b>Ionic Liquid (IL)</b>	<b>Substrate</b>	<b>Solvent</b>	<b>Lipase source</b>	<b>Optimum conditions</b>	<b>Yield of biodiesel</b>	<b>Ref.</b>
[HMIM][PF <sub>6</sub> ]	Chinese tallow kernel oil	Methanol	<i>Candida rugosa</i>	40 °C, 48 h, methanol/oil: 4:1	95.4%	[79]
[BSO <sub>3</sub> HMIM][HSO <sub>4</sub> ]	Rapeseed oil	Methanol	-	130 °C, 5 h, Methanol/oil 12:1, 2% catalyst (IL)	Nearly 100%	[80]
[Ps-N-Ch(Me) <sub>2</sub> ][p-TSA]	<i>Tung</i> oil	Methanol	-	120 °C, 2 h, Methanol/oil 21:1, 5% catalyst (IL)	98.98%	[76]
poly (ionic liquid): P(VB-VS)HSO <sub>4</sub>	<i>Soapberry</i> oil	Methanol	-	150 °C ,8 h Methanol/oil 29:1, 8.7 wt% catalyst (IL)	95.2%	[81]

## 6.2 Synthesis of esters and other products in ionic liquids

Organic solvents and ILs work efficiently in enzymatic synthesis, however, organic solvents became unfavorable owing to the toxicity issues, particularly in food, cosmetic or pharmaceuticals industries. The tunable physicochemical properties of ILs, allow them to serve as media in enormous enzymatic reactions. The IL's selection is important, as the incorrect IL may negatively impair the enzyme. As elaborated in previous sections, PF<sub>6</sub> and BF<sub>4</sub> ions do not interact strongly with water whereby optimum enzyme hydration can ensue inactivation can be prevented.

The fatty acid ester synthesis of *L*-ascorbic acid was enhanced by IL. The substance, *L*-ascorbic acid ester is a naturally occurring antioxidant with various applications in fats and oils [82]. The ascorbic acid esterification with oleic acid or palmitic acid using CALB was enhanced in [EMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] with a yield as 61-65% of 6-O-*L*-ascorbyl oleate. In this context, IL was able to dissolve polar substances, such as ascorbic acid, while preserving the activity of the lipase.

Findrik et al. [28] used [BMIM][PF<sub>6</sub>] in the fatty acids ester of sugars (SFAE) synthesis from glucose and palmitic acid catalyzed by Novozym® 435. SFAE, characterized by insecticidal and antimicrobial activities has been utilized as surfactants in various industries. The process could go for four cycles without purification. Starch palmitate was synthesized using a mixture of [BMIM][BF<sub>4</sub>] and [BMIM][OAc] and *Candida rugosa* lipase.

Using ILs, the problems related to low enzyme stability and starch' solubility limit in many reactions have been overcome, as many substrates which are insoluble in conventional solvents have better solubilities in ILs (Table 5).

Table 5. Lipase catalyzed-reactions and their main products, in Ionic liquids.

Ionic Liquid (IL)	Lipase source	Acyl acceptor	Acyl donor	Product	Yield [%]	Application	Ref.
[BMIM][BF <sub>4</sub> ] with DMSO as co-solvent	Lipozyme RMIM	Galactose	Oleic acid	Galactose oleate	87%	Emulsifiers, surfactants in pharmaceutical, cosmetics and food, Detergent.	[84]
[EMIM][MeSO <sub>3</sub> ]	<i>Burkholderia Contaminans</i> (DFS3) lipase	Solvent-free	Vinyl acetate	methyl 6-O-acetyl- $\alpha$ -D-glucopyranoside	70%	Esters of $\alpha$ -D-glucose production	[85]

[BMIM] [TFSI] [BMIM] [PF <sub>6</sub> ] [HMIM][PF <sub>6</sub> ] [OMIM][PF <sub>6</sub> ]	Novozyme 435	Hexanol	dihydrocaff eic acid	Methyl dihydrocaffate, hexyl dihydrocaffate, dodecyl Dihydrocaffate, octadecyl dihydrocaffate	68.7% 84.0% 81.2% 74.8%	Antioxidant properties	[86]
[BMIM][BF <sub>4</sub> ] [BMIM][MS]	<i>Candida rugosa</i> lipase	Isopropano l	Ketoprofen ethyl ester	Ketoprofen	45%	Anti- inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) Toothpaste additive to prevent periodontal disease.	[42]

IL-lipase reactions have been useful in biopolymers and food industries, for instance, corn starch esterification with *Rhizopus oryzae* lipase in novel surfactants from imidazolium-based ILs has been attempted by Adak and Banerjee [83]. An enhanced hydrophobicity and thermoelectricity were displayed by the modified starch.

### 6.3 Ionic liquids: The large-scale promise

The continuous growth of ionic liquids research has unlocked many limitations of their applications. Promising outcomes have been obtained on using ILs at laboratory scale, and the accomplishments at these primary applications have accelerated the potential of ILs at a greater scale.

Several commercialized and pilot processes using ILs have been recently recognized. Although ILs have not been used widely in industrial applications for commercial use, some corporations have initiated the industrial applications and distribution of ILs. In 1998, the commercial use of ILs was approved by the French Petroleum Institute. It was used in the preparation of polybutene (Difasol process), an important intermediate for producing rubber and plastic [87]. The initial industrial use of IL was introduced by BASF and was called the BASIL<sup>TM</sup> process (Biphasic Acid Scavenging utilizing Ionic Liquid), in Ludwigshafen, Germany, in 2002. This process formed *in situ* ionic liquid to capture the HCl generated during the alkoxyphenyl phosphines production from reacting chlorophenyl phosphines with alcohols. The established process was utilizing 1-methylimidazole to capture the acid, as an alternative to trimethylamine. The reaction formed 1-methyl-imidazolium chloride, a liquid salt at the reaction conditions. The yield in BASIL<sup>TM</sup> process was enhanced 80,000 times in contrast to the using tertiary amine in the conventional process [88].

Several firms such as Degussa, Central Glass Co. Ltd., IFP (Institut Français du Pétrole), Linde, Pionics, IoLiTec (Ionic Liquids Technologies) and Eastman Chemical Company have also engaged with the challenge of ILs technology scale up from the laboratory to industrial scale. Some of the industrial applications of ILs at pilot or commercial scales are presented in *Table 6*.

*Table 6. Some of the leading companies in ILs industrial synthesis and applications.*

Company	Application	Ionic Liquids	Ref.
BASF	Azeotropes breaking Process to break azeotropes, eg: H <sub>2</sub> O-EtOH and H <sub>2</sub> O-THF	[RMI][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	[88]
Supelco	Analytical chemistry: ionic liquid GC columns, such as SLB-IL111 ionic liquid column.	Example: [1,9-di (3- vinyl-imidazolium) nonane][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	[89]
Proionic TECHNOLOGY - CBILS®	Synthesis Biomass - Electrolytes - High- temperature cooling	[BMIM], [EMIM] based ILs on kg, tons. Customized ILs synthesis	[90]
IoLiTec	Customized synthesis Batteries, solar cells, Electrolytes, Fuel Cells, Sensor Electrolytes, Supercap-Electrolytes, solvents	Examples: TEGO®-R -IL-P9 1-Alkyl-2- methylimidazoles, Ammonium-based ILs	[91]

## 7. Recyclability of ILs and lipase

Recycling of lipases utilized for bioprocessing of oils and other biomaterials reduces the cost of the process and also minimizes the wastewater release into the environment. The reusability of lipase has been reported by several studies with promising results. Moniruzzaman and his group [44] have shown the potential of IL-lipase system to be reused as a biocatalyst, whereby the produced IL-microencapsulated *Candida rugosa* lipase in surfactant aggregates formed in ILvinyl-3-ethylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl) amide) ([veim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) monomer. Lipase encapsulated within the IL polymer retained its activity and showed excellent stability in aqueous solution. Moreover, most of the activity was retained after five cycles, with a complete recovery of the biopolymers the reaction mixture by centrifugation [44].

The feasible industrial method of membrane filtration could be overpriced way beyond using new IL in the process [26]. Therefore, the separation of hydrophobic ILs using the freezing process is very practical to release the IL from the reaction. With advanced



technology, more promising recyclability options have been introduced recently. For instance, a novel solid acidic IL polymer (PIL) has been used to catalyze the synthesis of biodiesel from waste oil. Results demonstrated that the PIL was very effective for both esterification of free fatty acids and the transesterification of triglycerides (99.0% yield). The recovery of the solid catalyst could be achieved by filtration. After the six cycles, 99% yield was obtained [92]. The hydroxyl-functionalized IL, [C<sub>1</sub>C<sub>3</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>Pyr][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] was utilized as a medium for the lipase (*Candida rugosa*)-catalyzed transesterification reaction. At the end of the reaction, the enzyme and IL-phase were recycled by washing with water followed by acetone. High biodiesel yield was obtained by extending the reaction time from two hours (fresh) to six hours (recovered) due to the reduction of the catalytic performance of the retrieved enzyme which resulted from lipase's active sites blockage by impurities [40]. Combination of SO<sub>3</sub>H- functioned zwitterion and phosphotungstic acid (PW) formed heteropoly anion-based Brønsted acidic ILs (HPA-ILs). The activity of the reused catalyst was examined via the esterification of methanol with oleic acid. Upon each run, the reaction mixture was cooled, and the catalyst was collected at the bottom of the reactor as solid and filtered out for collection. There was no notable reduction in yield after four cycles, though 15% loss of the catalyst's weight was recorded [93].

Recently, magnetic nanocomposites have been obtained by combining the covalently modified chitosan using imidazole-based ILs with various functional groups and magnetic nanoparticles Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to be a support matrix for porcine pancreatic lipase (PPL) immobilization. PPL immobilized on nanocomposites (modified with IL) displayed higher reusability and retained 91% (residual activity) after 10 repeated cycles. More importantly, using a magnetic field, the immobilized lipase could be readily retrieved [43]. Similarly, graphene oxide Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocomposites were produced by Xie et al. [94] and the nanoparticles were used as magnetic carriers for *Candida rugosa* lipase, to serve as a biocatalyst for the production of biodiesel with 92% yield. The catalyst was reused for five cycles without activity loss. Similar attempts were also done by other groups using the idea of magnetic-IL and immobilized lipase for easy recovery [47].

It can be concluded that lipase-catalyzed reactions are currently promising and have enormous horizons. Due to the development of nanotechnology, immobilization and encapsulation of lipases on solid support and nanocomposites, as well as functionalization with ILs, are motivating advancement to carry on the exploration of more possibilities and opportunities of lipase and ILs processes.

## 8. Kinetics parameters of lipases in ILs

Despite many proofs on enhancing the catalytic activity of lipases in ILs, the effects of IL on the behavior of the biocatalyst are still in the exploration stage. In fact, kinetic properties of the enzyme could disclose the mechanisms and the catalytic activity of the reaction, in which the enzyme acts. Enzymes operate to enhance the rate of reaction therefore, the rates of the reactions catalyzed by enzymes with different substrates and under different conditions have been examined. The main platform used to understand enzymatic reaction has been the Michaelis-Menten equation (Eq.1) which has been modified depending upon the enzyme and the inhibition.

$$v = \frac{V_{max}S}{K_m + S} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

where the maximal velocity is  $V_{max}$ , the rate of the enzyme is  $v$ , the substrate's concentration is  $S$ , and the constant for Michaelis-Menten's is  $K_m$ , which expresses the substrate concentration at  $V_{max}/2$ .  $K_m$  is also an indicator of the concentration of the substrate needed for a significant catalysis to take place [95].

The reaction rate of an enzyme fluctuates in a hyperbolic manner according to the substrate concentration. At  $V_{max}$ , enzyme molecules (active sites) are all occupied with the substrate. At a definite enzyme concentration, the maximum velocity ( $V_{max}$ ) discloses the turnover number, or the catalytic constant,  $k_{cat}$ .  $k_{cat}$  is the maximum number of substrate molecules converted into a product by the enzyme, at the saturation of substrate on the enzyme per unit time. On the other hand, the specificity constant,  $k_{cat}/k_m$ , is the rate constant that describes the relationship between enzyme and substrate concentrations, to express the enzyme efficiency. The catalytic perfection is achieved when enzymes have  $k_{cat}/k_m$  ratio in the range of  $10^8$ - $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  [26].

ILs have been reported to enhance the rate of reaction, stabilize the lipase and prevent inhibition in some events. For instance, *Candida antarctic* lipase B immobilized on multiwall carbon nanotubes (MWNTs) modified by imidazolium-based ILs with different functional groups, showed a high affinity towards the substrate and high reaction rate. We can conclude that the IL modification contributes to improving the affinity between the carrier and the enzyme. The IL in use can lower the activation energy ( $E_a$ ) required for the enzyme reaction and stabilize the enzyme-substrate complex [E-S] which improves the enzymatic activity [96].

The kinetic performance of IL-catalyzed transesterification of *n*-butanol and of methyl acetate revealed two models: (i) the ideal homogeneous (IH) model and (ii) the non-ideal homogeneous (NIH) model. The two models were suggested to interpret the kinetic data. Compared to conventional catalysts such as Amberlyst 15, sulfuric acid and ion-exchange resin catalysts, ILs were found more effective than conventional catalysts [98].

The enzymatic transesterification of ethyl ferulate (EF) with castor oil was recently reported in imidazolium with  $\text{BF}_4^-$ ,  $\text{TF}_2\text{N}^-$  and  $\text{PF}_6^-$ , whereby [EMIM][ $\text{PF}_6$ ] displayed the highest conversion ( $\sim 100\%$ ) with excellent selectivity for the formation of feruloylated mono- and di-acylglycerols. Moreover, a significant shielding effect was observed against the thermal deactivation of lipase (Novozym 435®). The Arrhenius equation was  $\ln v^\circ = 13.17 - 64.37/RT$ , and  $E_a$  (activation energy) was  $64.37 \pm 3.00 \text{ kJ. mol}^{-1}$ . The initial reaction rate expression was in agreement with the Ping-Pong Bi-Bi kinetic model. The Ping- Pong Bi-Bi model follows the equation (Eq.2):

$$v = \frac{V_{max} [A][B]}{(K_{mB}[A] + K_{mA}[B]) + [A][B]} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

The  $E_a$ ,  $V_{max}$ ,  $K_{mA}$ , and  $K_{mB}$  were  $64.37 \text{ kJ. mol}^{-1}$ ,  $1.07 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol. L}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $0.11 \text{ mol. L}^{-1}$ , and  $8 \text{ mol. L}^{-1}$ , respectively. The Ping-pong mechanism is characterized by changing of the enzyme into an intermediate form when the first substrate to product reaction occurs. At the end of the reaction, the enzyme does not undergo any alteration. Moreover, one product formed and released before the second substrate binds [99].

PEG-modified lipase-catalyzed the alcoholysis of 2-phenyl-1-propanol and vinyl acetate in *n*-hexane and [BMIM][ $\text{PF}_6$ ]. The results showed some variations in the kinetics of the reaction between the organic solvent and the IL. The  $V_{max}$  was relatively lower in *n*-hexane ( $47 \text{ mmol. g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) than in [BMIM][ $\text{PF}_6$ ] ( $55 \text{ mmol. g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ). The value of  $K_m$  in [BMIM][ $\text{PF}_6$ ] was about half of that in *n*-hexane. The results suggested that the stabilization seemed to be well-established in the IL in contrast with *n*-hexane and the complex of [E-S] was well-prepared to be formed in [BMIM][ $\text{PF}_6$ ].

From our point of view, the kinetics of IL-catalyzed reactions is yet to be examined and established. With a number of  $10^5$  and more possibilities of ILs formulations, more simulation, molecular dynamics, and kinetics models are required to fit in the wide range of ILs in use. There is more to be explored on the mechanisms of activation or inhibition of the enzyme in ILs to best describe their behavior and optimize the reaction conditions.

## **9. Limitations and concerns over ILs**

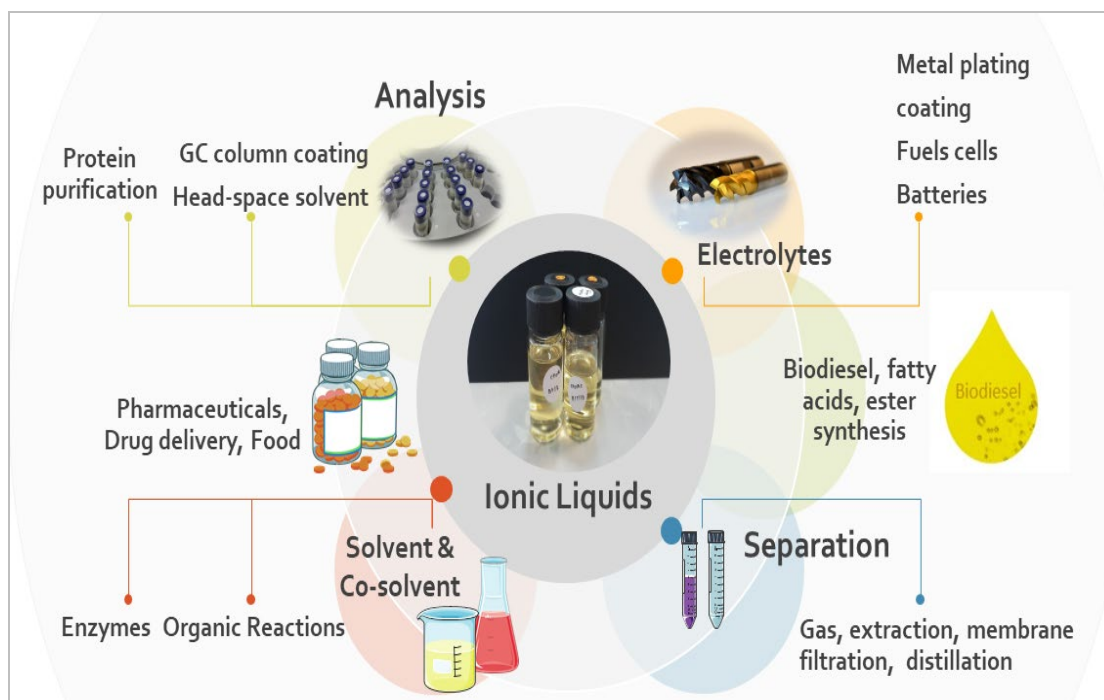
At present, the physical and chemical characteristics of hundreds of ILs are still unexposed. Therefore, ILs toxicity is still unidentified, and hence, not all ILs could be considered green. There is no consistency in ILs toxic effect. Some ILs display low toxicity, while others show significant inhibition in several biological systems. It is presumed that the higher water solubility of ILs correlate with their high impact on the environment, as they could easily diffuse to the ecosystems. The IL's purity is also critical as impurities may impair the extraction processes or the enzyme activity [21].

The viscosity of some ILs is also one of the concerns in selected applications. The elongation of the cations' alkyl chain for a fixed anion generates stronger van der Waals interactions, leading to a negative impact on the stability and activity of the enzyme. The rate of biocatalytic reactions is influenced by IL's viscosity due to the mass transfer limitation, in case of viscous IL and fast reactions [51].

On the other hand, the recycling process of ILs requires volatile solvents or water. Therefore, establishing a separation technique is one of the solutions to resolve this issue. In this context, efforts have been made to immobilize enzymes and ILs on solid supports, which facilitate the recovery and the separation as mentioned in previous sections. Even so, many of the applications offered by ILs such as membrane separation processes and supercritical extraction technologies must be addressed. To date, the use of ILs in several industrial processes has provided the additional benefit of recyclability and enhanced yields. Despite the extensive research, ILs have not been generally assessed as eco-friendly solvents for the industrial applications in the food sector [87]. Moreover, ILs' biodegradability is a priority concern. The chemical components of the IL should decompose into harmless and easily degradable components.

## **10. The outlook for ILs in industrial applications**

ILs are rapidly emerging as important tools in the formulation of innovative and complicated materials and have been contributing remarkably towards advancing of new sustainable, efficient and eco-friendly processes. We have highlighted the benefits, advantages, and potential of ILs in the lipase-catalyzed reactions. To date, the challenges and concerns are directed to finding renewable resources with low energy consumption while minimizing costs and increasing efficiency towards industrial-scale processing using ILs (*Figure 3*).



*Figure 3. Summary of ionic liquid applications in the industry*

For the ILs-catalyzed reactions, we need to highlight a few main points:

- When designing an IL, the researcher should define the potential in applications rather than inventing solvents. This is due to the indefinite numbers of possibilities of ILs to be formed (by altering the cations and anions). Thus, a full investigation of the existing ILs is the first priority.
- The publication trend is showing environmental concern. One of the most challenging tasks is waste management. Recycling and reuse of the ILs and the catalysts should be the direction of developing ILs processing and applications.
- ILs are expected to gain a significant impact in the food industry, considering the current flow of research and investigation.
- It is suggested to plan synthesis of the IL and run a cost-benefit analysis, including seizing the recovery technique and the purification method to be used.
- ILs field is expanding. So far, this field is branched to enormous applications including drug delivery, biofuels, biomass processing, pharmaceutical, metal plating, batteries and more. Enhancing the scale-up of production is a great future mark towards sustainable technology, which has been proven succeeded by new-born companies.

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## Chapter 3

# Water in Organic Synthesis as a Green Solvent

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### Abstract

The growing demand for more sustainable approaches in synthetic chemistry has led to increasing attention in the application of H<sub>2</sub>O as a solvent in the last decade. H<sub>2</sub>O as a solvent is not only environmentally benign and inexpensive but also offers promising advantages, for instance, improves rates and yields; enhances chemo-, enantio-, regio-, stereo-selectivities; simplifies the process of reaction handling and workup; enables the recovering and reusing of the catalysts; avoids protection-deprotection steps; and allows milder reaction conditions. This book chapter focuses on the potential application of H<sub>2</sub>O as a solvent for organic synthesis, highlighting benefits and the spectrum of important organic reactions that can be performed in H<sub>2</sub>O with a green chemistry perspective.

### Keywords

Green Chemistry, Water, Reactivity and Selectivity, Protecting-Group Free Synthesis, Recycling of Catalysts

### Abbreviations

Expanded term	Acronym
2,2'-Bis(diphenylphosphino)-1,1'-binaphthyl	BINAP
9-Fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl	Fmoc
Acetonitrile	CH <sub>3</sub> CN
Also known as	<i>aka.</i>
Ammonium chloride	NH <sub>4</sub> Cl
Atom-transfer radical cyclisation	ATRC
Baylis-Hillman	BH
Chloroform	CHCl <sub>3</sub>
Critical micelle concentration	CMC
Cross-metathesis	CM
Cu(I)-catalyzed alkyne-azide [3+2] cycloaddition	CuAAC
Diels-Alder	DA
Dimethyl sulfoxide	DMSO



Diphenylborinic acid	Ph <sub>2</sub> BOH
Environmental protection agency	EPA
Ethanol	EtOH
Green chemistry institute	GCI
Guanidine hydrochloride	C(NH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup> Cl <sup>-</sup>
Hour	H
Isooctane	IOA
Lithium chloride	CLi
Methanol	MeOH
Microwave	MW
Polyethylene glycol	PEG
Polyethyleneglycolubiquinolsebacate	PQS
Presidential green chemistry challenge award	PGCCA
Ring-closing metathesis	RCM
Rxempli gratia	<i>e.g.</i>
Scandium(III) triflate	Sc(OTf) <sub>3</sub>
Siloxy	R <sub>3</sub> SiO-
sodium dodecyl sulfate	SDS
Solid-supported evan's oxazolidin-2-one	IRORI Kan
Sulfonated polystyrene	PS
Tetrahydrofuran	THF
Tetra- <i>n</i> -butylammonium bromide	TBAB
Thermolysin	TML
Trifluoroethanol	TFE
Water	H <sub>2</sub> O
Zirconium dioxide	ZrO <sub>2</sub>

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## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1 The development of green chemistry**

Chemistry dates back to alchemy in the seventeenth and eighteen centuries, and it has been constantly progressing human life and economic prosperity ever since through makes better materials, effective drugs, safer food, and enhanced health. There is a growing demand for the indirect or direct employment of products currently mediated on petrochemicals, such as personal care and products, agrochemicals, paints, pharmaceuticals, and coatings, as well as more advanced materials for the advancement of society [1]. Despite the evident advantages of chemistry to a human being, chemicals have badly affected the environment and human health. It is a fact that all these chemicals, including the more toxic ones, are released into the atmosphere during their production, application or disposal. For our planet, this will cause an inevitable ecotoxicological hazard. As awareness of this is growing, non-governmental and governments organizations are forcing industries to decrease toxic waste during the manufacture of their products and to mitigate their effects owing to the consequent risk for the environment and human health [2,3].

At the end of the twentieth century, the term “green chemistry *aka.* sustainable chemistry” was first used by P.T Anastas as in a special program organized by the United States environmental protection agency (EPA) in order to support advanced technologies that reduce or eliminate the impact of dangerous chemicals in the manufacture, design and use of chemical products, and to encourage sustainable development of chemical technology and chemistry by industry, academia and government [4]. The United States presidential green chemistry challenge award (PGCCA) was published in 1995 and was followed by similar awards in European countries. The green chemistry institute (GCI) was developed to create contacts between governmental agencies and industrial corporations with universities and research centers to implement and design green,

innovative and operative technologies. In 1997, the first conference on the theme of green chemistry was held in Washington followed by subsequent conferences all around the world [5].

## **1.2 Green chemistry and its requirements in organic synthesis**

The interdisciplinary cooperation of scientists, governmental agencies, research institutes, universities, and industries, which have their own plans and approaches to decrease the pollution, has resulted in the creation of the “sustainable” or “green” concept. In adhering to the ethos of “green chemistry”, all procedures, for example, preparation, processing, and application of chemical materials, must be performed in such a way as to decrease impact on the environment and human health. Green chemistry *aka* sustainable chemistry is defined as “environmentally benign chemical synthesis” [5,6]. Under green chemistry, the schemes for the synthesis of compounds are planned in such a manner that there is no or minimum toxic waste to the atmosphere. To carry out the green organic reactions, the following basic principles of “green chemistry” formulated by P.T Anastas as must be maintained: (i) minimization or prevention of hazardous byproducts and waste products, (ii) minimum energy requirement for any synthesis, (iii) choosing the appropriate catalyst, (iv) selecting the most appropriate solvent, (v) maximum incorporation of the starting materials into the product, (vi) selecting the appropriate starting materials, and (vii) following the green metric correlations. The synthesis that does not follow these basic principles is not “green”. It is essential to carefully select the catalysts and the solvents for carrying out such reactions [7,8].

## **1.3 Green and alternative solvents in organic synthesis**

Green chemistry is highly depended on the solvent. Solvents used by chemists are generally utilized as a reaction media, in separation or purification methods. The appropriateness and quality appropriateness of reactions and chemical processes are highly dependent on the nature of the solvent utilized. Most of the common solvents (such as dichloromethane, toluene, and benzene, *etc*) that are usually used are harmful. Benzene is popular for causing cancer, toluene causes brain, liver and kidney problems, used halogenated solvents carbon tetrachloride, chloroform, methylene chloride have been recognized as human carcinogens. Volatility is also one of the major problems with various organic solvents that may damage the environment and health of human [9,10].

Solvents employed in organic reactions as well as in other areas have had a growing impact on the awareness of researchers attributed to having effects on the environment and human health. The chosen solvent should carefully be considered for the effect it has on the environment and human health. There are huge consumptions, an almost fifteen

billion kilograms of organic halogenated solvents, worth more than \$5 billion, are used worldwide per year [11]. As per the fifth principle of green chemistry, expressed by J.C. Warner and P.T. Anastas, “The use of auxiliary substances (*e.g.* separation agents, solvents, *etc.*) must be made unnecessary wherever possible and, innocuous when used”. We should initially consider how to maximize the yield and minimize the application of solvents in order to eliminate waste disposal after usage. Solvent usage should also include some of the following considerations [12]: (i) knowledge of its environmental fate, (ii) the toxicity effect on the environment, and (iii) volatility. All of these effects have made researchers to find alternative solvents that can be the replacement for classical petrochemical solvents. There are various solvents which have been examined and employed in the organic reactions to move to more environmentally benign and innocuous conditions for human health and nature [13,14]. Following are the most employed and researched solvents in attendance as well as the solvent-free conditions: (i) water; (ii) supercritical fluids (widely carbon dioxide, water); (iii) ethanol, aqueous surfactant micelles and polymers [15]; (iv) fluoruous solvents; and (v) ionic liquids.

#### **1.4 Water as a green solvent in organic synthesis**

For a long time, H<sub>2</sub>O has been regarded as contamination when it comes to organic synthesis. But investigations have shown that water can have striking effects on some organic reactions. Use of H<sub>2</sub>O as a solvent in organic reactions is desirable from a green chemistry perspective since it is cheap, readily available, non-flammable and non-toxic. In the 1980s, Breslow discovered that H<sub>2</sub>O had a promising effect on the selectivity and rate of reaction in Diels-Alder (DA) cycloaddition between cyclopenta-1,3-diene **1** and but-3-en-2-one **2** to furnish 1-(bicyclo[2.2.1]hept-5-en-2-yl)ethanone **3** (Table 1). This has contributed a lot to the interest in aqueous synthesis [16,17]. H<sub>2</sub>O as solvent exhibited the formation of hydrophobic aggregates in order to eliminate the contact surface between H<sub>2</sub>O and the organic phase. In order to keep the complex net of hydrogen bonding interactions, H<sub>2</sub>O developed networks around the aggregates; therefore, served as internal pressure. The resulting effect is the enhancement of reactions with the negative volume of activation, like the DA cycloaddition [18]. These findings were considered an important development in the area of organic chemistry in aqueous media.

H<sub>2</sub>O is an exclusively valuable solvent for high temperature and high-pressure reactions, where the polarity is inferior, making it a better solvent for organic reactions, and where the ionic product of H<sub>2</sub>O is high, making it a stronger base and acid. Furthermore, H<sub>2</sub>O is a renewable resource, unlike numerous organic solvents which rely on non-renewable petroleum resources. H<sub>2</sub>O has desirable benefits but it also has some shortcomings. Its high energy capacity results in demand for high energy in order to regulate its

temperature when implemented on an industrial scale compared to other solvents like MeOH. The high energy demand also becomes a problem when H<sub>2</sub>O is to be isolated through rotary evaporation [19].

*Table 1. Diels-Alder reaction in water by Breslow*

Solvent	Additive	$K_2 \times 10^5 \text{ (M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}\text{)}$
IOA		$5.94 \pm 0.3$
MeOH		75.5
H <sub>2</sub> O		$4400 \pm 70$
H <sub>2</sub> O	ClLi (4.86 M)	10800
H <sub>2</sub> O	C(NH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup> Cl <sup>-</sup> (4.86 M)	4300
H <sub>2</sub> O	$\alpha$ -Cyclodextrin (10 nM)	10900
H <sub>2</sub> O	$\beta$ -Cyclodextrin (10 nM)	2610

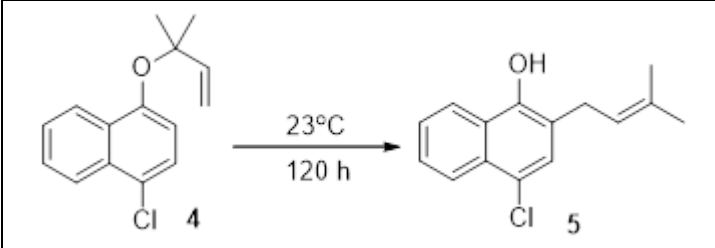
Isooctane= IOA; methanol= MeOH; lithium chloride=ClLi; Guanidine hydrochloride =C(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>Cl<sup>-</sup>

## 2. On water reactions and concept of micellar catalysis in organic synthesis

### 2.1 On water reactions

Traditional organic reactions are frequently carried out in organic solvents. On account of concern about the shortcoming of using an organic solvent which causes a large amount of waste, H<sub>2</sub>O became the most interesting alternative solvent for organic synthesis. An early example discovered by Sharpless in 2005 displayed the benefit of using H<sub>2</sub>O over organic solvents in term of rate acceleration in Claisen rearrangements from **4** to **5** (Table 2) [20,21]. When performing a reaction in H<sub>2</sub>O, organic substrates are insoluble and usually form emulsions. This phenomenon actually shows a faster rate of the reaction compared to organic solvents owing to the highly concentrated conditions. This heterogeneous emulsion is developed by an aggregation of hydrophobic organic molecules into very small droplets. The reaction then takes place inside these isolated droplets, reacting at a faster rate. This kind of reaction is called an "on water" reaction which is the original idea for the subsequent further advancement of micellar catalysis in organic synthesis [22].

*Table 2. An early example of “on water” Claisen rearrangements by Sharpless*

	
Solvent	Yield (%)
Toluene	16
Dimethylformamide	21
Acetonitrile	27
Methanol	56
Neat	73
Water	100

## 2.2 Micellar catalysis

Micellar catalysis is the technology which offers a more striking possibility for organic synthesis to take place in H<sub>2</sub>O. By using the idea of self-assembling of surfactant molecules into micelles, numerous classical reactions take place efficiently in H<sub>2</sub>O. The surfactant is a substance comprising of two main components: lipophilic and hydrophilic portions. When a surfactant is dissolved in H<sub>2</sub>O above its CMC (critical micelle concentration), it self-aggregated into micelles with a lipophilic internal and hydrophilic external in contact with H<sub>2</sub>O. The lipophilic inner cores of micelles then act as the organic solvent pockets for the organic reaction to take place [21,22]. Although several of the commercially available surfactants have been extensively used in industries (Fig. 1), they still cannot facilitate many reactions in H<sub>2</sub>O, especially transition metal-catalyzed reactions. In 2008, the Lipshutz group [23] started a program of green chemistry by disclosing PTS-600 as the first generation designer surfactant. Particle size, shape, and concentration in H<sub>2</sub>O are crucial to the performance of organic reactions in the medium of a surfactant. The vitamin E mediated surfactant was formed to have better characteristics. It was later launched as the second generation TPGS-750-M [24]. Both are commercially available and extensively used in industry and academia (Fig.2).

The first two generations of designer surfactants had been disclosed to permit transition metal- catalyzed reactions in H<sub>2</sub>O. Both showed outstanding performance in many of the name reactions as previously reported [25]. The structures of these two surfactants are similar, consisting of three main parts: polyethylene glycol (PEG) as a hydrophilic section, a diacid linker, and vitamin E or  $\alpha$ -tocopherol as the lipophilic part. By systematically studying, different lengths of linker and PEG, to affect the particle shape, size and performance of the surfactants in chemical reactions could be determined [25].

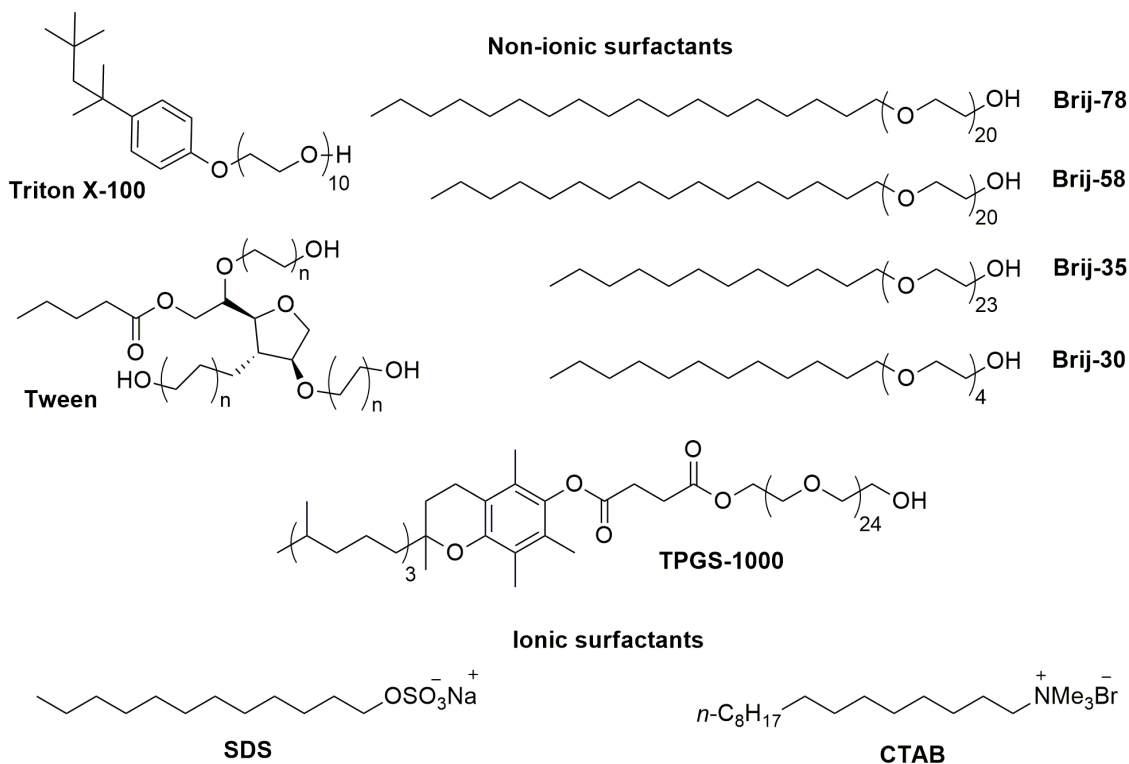


Figure 1. Structure of some commercially available surfactants.

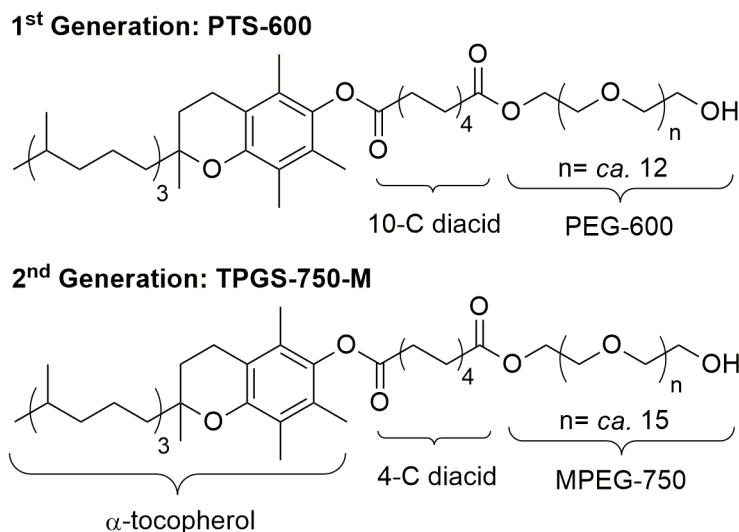
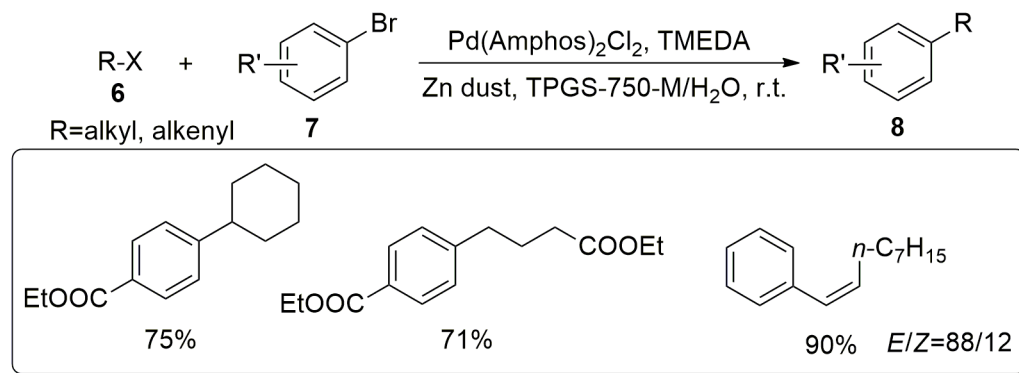


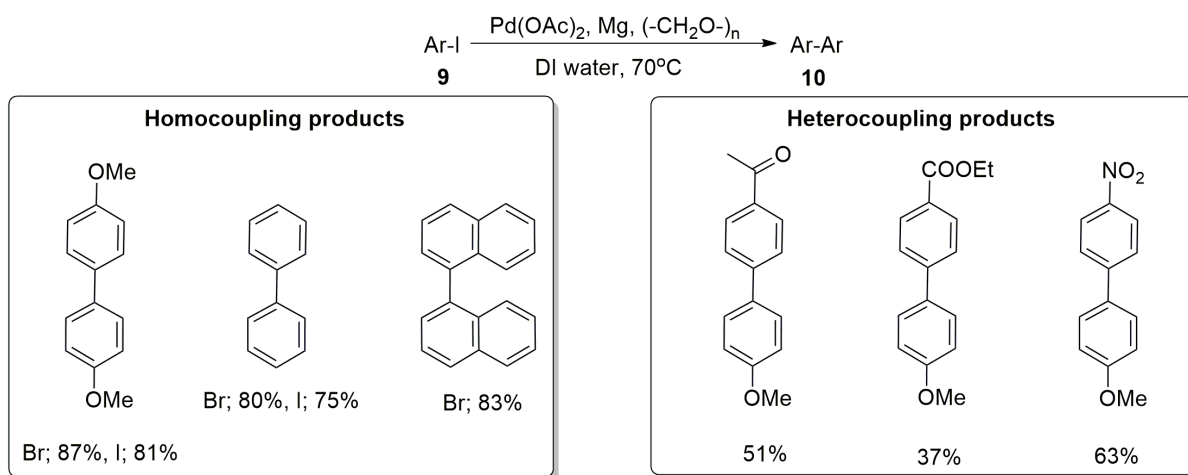
Figure 2. The first two-generation surfactants developed by the Lipshutz group.

Although micellar catalysis can solve the problem of incompatibility between water and organic substances, there are some more challenging problems which limit the usage of H<sub>2</sub>O as a solvent for some reactions. An example of H<sub>2</sub>O-sensitive reaction includes the employment of very sensitive substrates or catalysts. Exclusively, H<sub>2</sub>O-sensitive

organometallic compounds are the main concern when performing a reaction in H<sub>2</sub>O. By optimizing conditions and modifying the reaction process, these H<sub>2</sub>O-sensitive substances can be produced *in-situ* in water. Hence, it is possible that the reaction can take place in H<sub>2</sub>O. An obvious example is the Negishi reaction which involves H<sub>2</sub>O-sensitive organo-zinc reagents (Scheme 1) [24]. The optimized conditions involve *in-situ* generation of organo-zinc in a micellar environment that can facilitate the cross-coupling reaction of **6** with **7** to afford **8** successfully. Likewise, an example of Kumada-type reactions between *in-situ* generated organo-magnesium and aryl halides **9** can be performed in water as well to produce **10** (Scheme 2) [26]. As mentioned, micellar catalysis offers an opportunity to use H<sub>2</sub>O-sensitive materials in H<sub>2</sub>O condition which broadens the scope of applications of H<sub>2</sub>O as a replacement for organic solvents.



Scheme 1. A Negishi-like reaction in water.



Scheme 2. Kumada-Grignard type biaryl coupling in water.



In green chemistry, the development of micellar catalysis is ongoing in academia and extending to the industry as well. A new generation of surfactants, as well as a new area of reactions, is being investigated to expand the scope of this application. It would be remarkable to witness all organic reactions in H<sub>2</sub>O as the only medium. This will simplify the process of waste management, purification, and solvent selection [21].

### 3. Enhancement in rate and yield of organic reactions

Increasing the reactivity of a reaction affects prominently its sustainability since it may permit easier purification, lower catalytic loadings, lower temperature, better yields and shorter reaction time. In the 1980s, Breslow discovered that H<sub>2</sub>O over organic solvents had a promising effect on the reactivity of reaction in DA cycloaddition between cyclopenta-1,3-diene **1** and but-3-en-2-one **2** to furnish 1-(bicyclo[2.2.1]hept-5-en-2-yl)ethanone **3** (Table 1) [17]. The results of DA cycloaddition were explained on the basis of hydrophobic effect [27]. This characteristic of H<sub>2</sub>O arises from the repulsive forces between H<sub>2</sub>O and hydrophobic species, which results in the development of hydrophobic aggregates that permit plummeting the contact surface among them. In order to keep the complex net of hydrogen bonding interactions, H<sub>2</sub>O wraps itself around these hydrophobic aggregates; therefore, serving as an internal pressure [18]. The resulting effect is that reactions with the negative volume of activation, like the DA cycloaddition, will be enhanced. Occasionally, the enhancements in the rate of organic reaction owe to interfacial forces among some free hydroxyl moieties of H<sub>2</sub>O and the organic compounds (particularly the transition states) [28].

In 2005, the time for completion of the reaction between quadricyclane **11** and dimethyl diazene-1,2-dicarboxylate **12** to furnish **13** was observed under a range of conditions by K. Barry and co-workers [29]. The investigation revealed that polar protic solvents enhanced the rate of reaction. The following order was observed for the rates of reaction: water > methanol > dimethyl sulfoxide > acetonitrile  $\approx$  dichloromethane > ethyl acetate  $\approx$  toluene (Table 3). This sequence reveals that dipolar effects, charge stabilization and hydrogen bonding may each be significant for acceleration of rate. It was interesting noted that due to the isotope effect, the cycloaddition rate was significantly decreased when deuterium oxide (heavy water) was employed in place of H<sub>2</sub>O. Presumably, it happened due to a decrease in the hydrophobic effects.

Million-time rate acceleration of a DA cycloaddition owing to micellar catalysis and combined Lewis acid in H<sub>2</sub>O was reported by Otto et al. [30]. They reported that the cycloaddition between **1** and **14** performed in H<sub>2</sub>O as a reaction medium to afford **15** was 287-times faster as compared to the same addition reaction in CH<sub>3</sub>CN (Table 4). Furthermore, they observed that the cycloaddition in H<sub>2</sub>O in the presence of micellar

catalysis and Lewis acid was  $1.8 \times 10^6$ -fold faster as compared to the same addition reaction in  $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$ .

*Table 3. Cycloaddition of dimethyl azodicarboxylate and quadricyclane under diverse conditions<sup>a</sup>*

Solvent	Conc. [M]	Time to completion
Toluene	2	> 5 days
Ethyl acetate	2	> 5 days
Acetonitrile	2	3.5 days
Dichloromethane	2	3 days
Dimethyl sulfoxide	2	1.5 days
Methanol	2	18 h
Neat	4.53	2 days
Heavy water	4.53	45 min
Perfluorohexane	4.53	1.5 days
Water	4.53	10 min

<sup>a</sup>Compound **13** was the only observed product in each case.

*Table 4. Joint effect of micellar catalysis and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  on rate of DA cycloaddition*

Conditions	Reaction kinetics	
Acetonitrile	1	
Water	287	
$\text{Cu}(\text{OSO}_3\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{25})_2$	2.4 mM,	$1.8 \times 10^6$
Water		

The rate of Claisen rearrangement involving a [3,3]-sigmatropic rearrangement with negative volume changes of activation when compared with DA cycloaddition was also enhanced in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . The enhancement in yield and rate of Claisen rearrangements when carried out in water relative to organic media or neat conditions was noticed by K. Barry and co-workers [29]. The rearrangement of 1-chloro-4-((2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)oxy)naphthalene **4** to 4-chloro-2-(3-methylbut-2-en-1-yl)naphthalen-1-ol **5** in water at  $23^\circ\text{C}$  was accomplished within 120 h whereas, it was found to be considerably slower in organic media showing yield in the range of 16-56% (Table 2). Compared to the reaction

in water, the yield and rate of rearrangement reaction were also observed to be slower in neat conditions.

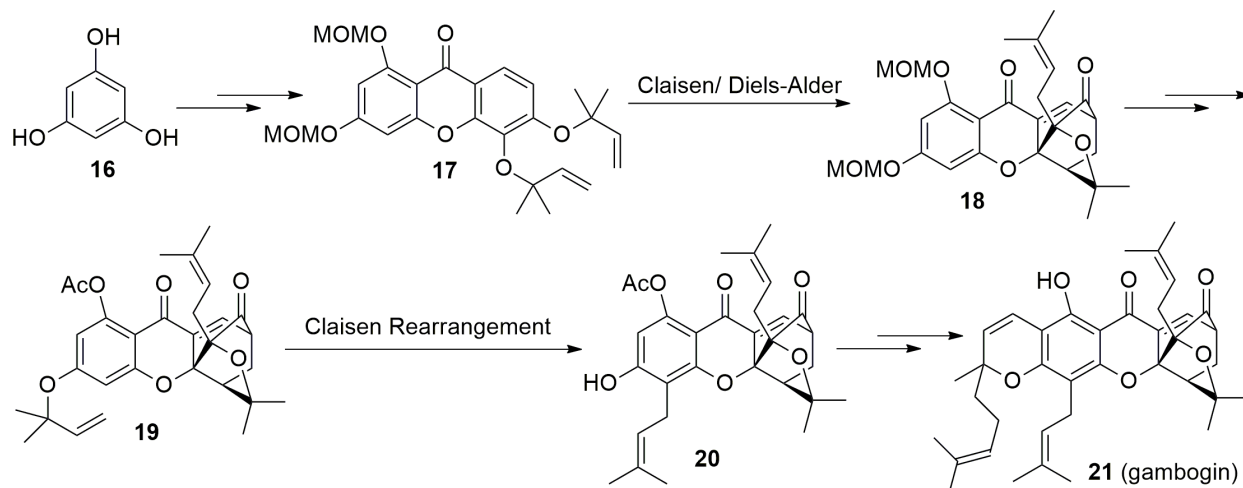
In literature, the aqueous solutions have been extensively used to accelerate yield and rate of pericyclic reactions in the total synthesis of a diverse library of bioactive drugs and natural products. Total synthesis of gambogin **21** by Xu and co-workers [31], a bioactive natural product that exhibits cytotoxic properties against the HEL and Hela cell lines, involves two important steps of a Claisen/DA cascade cycloaddition and Claisen rearrangement (Scheme 3). In aqueous solutions, the Claisen/DA cascade cycloaddition from **17** to **18** displayed dramatic improvements in yield and rate of reaction. In aqueous solutions, promising improvement in rate and yield of Claisen rearrangement from **19** to **20** were also noticed (Table 5) [31].

*Table 5. Improvement in rate and yield of the DA cycloaddition and Claisen rearrangement by aqueous solutions*

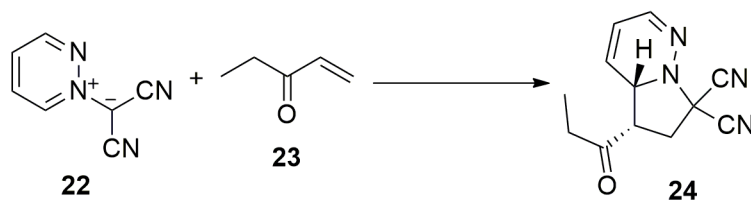
DA cycloaddition from <b>17</b> to <b>18</b>				Claisen rearrangement from <b>19</b> to <b>20</b>			
Solvent	T (°C)	t (h)	Conversion (%)	Solvent	T (°C)	t (h)	Conversion (%)
MeOH	65	4	0	MeOH	50	4.5	50
TFE	65	4	0	TFE	25	4	0
EtOH	65	4	0	EtOH	25	4	0
MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O (1:1)	65	4	100	MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O (1:1)	50	2.5	100
TFE/H <sub>2</sub> O (1:1)	65	4	100	TFE/H <sub>2</sub> O (1:1)	25	75	100
EtOH/H <sub>2</sub> O (1:1)	65	4	100	EtOH/H <sub>2</sub> O (1:1)	25	72	100

Trifluoroethanol=TFE

Various investigations have confirmed the hydrophobic effect as well as the hydrogen bonding contribution to the enhancements in the rate of pericyclic reactions [32]. For instance, Butler and co-workers have reported that the rate of the DA cycloaddition reaction of dicyano (pyridazin-1-ium-1-yl)methanide **22** with the pent-1-en-3-one **23** to produce **24** was improved by slowly rising the mole fraction of H<sub>2</sub>O in the organic media (from 0 to 1) of cyanomethane, propanone, MeOH, EtOH, and *t*-butanol at 37°C (Scheme 4). In each case, exponential improvement in rate was noticed as the mole fraction of H<sub>2</sub>O surpassed *ca.* 0.9. No triggering effect was observed when MeOH was used in the place of H<sub>2</sub>O. These experimental data support the dominating effects of hydrophobicity and hydrogen bonding on the rate enhancement [32].

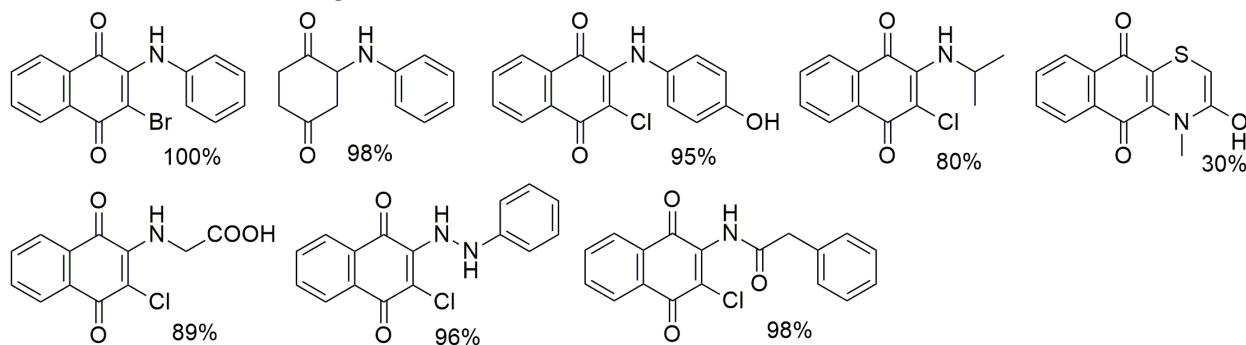


*Scheme 3. Pericyclic reactions for formation of gambogin.*



*Scheme 4. Synthesis of 5-propionyl-5,6-dihydropyrrolo[1,2]pyridazine-7,7(4aH)-dicarbonitrile.*

Tandon and Maurya [33] reported the effect of water on nucleophilic addition and substitution reactions of 1, 4-benzoquinones. The reaction of 2,3-dichloronaphthalene-1,4-dione **25** with phenylamine **26** was performed in water at 50°C to furnish the respective target **27** in quantitative yield. This approach was observed to be more superior than other reported techniques (Table 6) [34,35]. A diverse range of thiols, amides, hydrazines, amine, and amino acids effectively underwent nucleophilic addition and substitution reactions (Fig. 3).



*Figure 3. Structure of synthesized products by nucleophilic substitution and addition reactions.*

Triethylboron-mediated atom-transfer radical cyclisation (ATRC) of iodoacetates and iodoacetals in H<sub>2</sub>O has been reported by Koichiro and co-worker [36]. Radical cyclisation reaction of iodoacetal efficiently proceeded in water (Table 7). ATRC of prop-2-en-1-yl iodoacetate **28** to deliver 4-(iodomethyl)oxolan-2-one **29** was much more effective in H<sub>2</sub>O as compared to in hexane, acetonitrile, alcohols, dimethylformamide, dimethyl sulfoxide, benzene, dichloromethane or tetrahydrofuran. The noteworthy effect of H<sub>2</sub>O on yield was noticed in this cyclisation reaction.

Table 6. Catalyst-free nucleophilic addition and substitution reaction in water

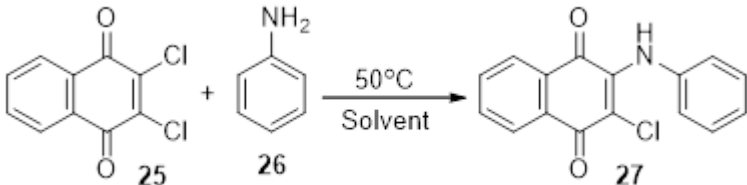
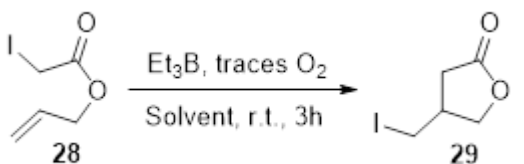
			
Solvent	Temperature (°C)	Time (h)	Yield (%)
Benzene	50-60	0.5	81
MeOH	-	-	73
EtOH	r.t.	1	90
Water	r.t.	0.83	100
Water	50	0.25	100

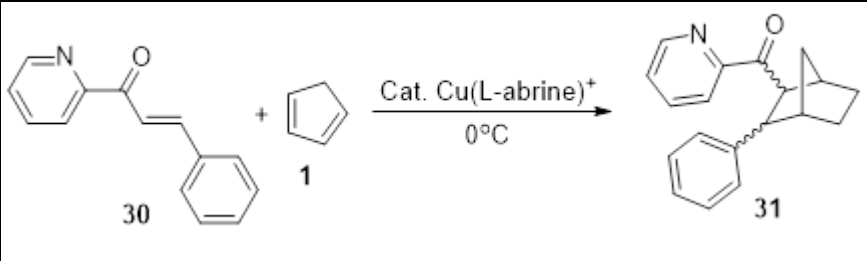
Table 7. Effect of water on the triethylboron-mediated ATRC

	
Solvent	Yield (%)
Dichloromethane	<1
Tetrahydrofuran	<1
Benzene	<1
Hexane	<1
Acetonitrile	13
Methanol	6
Ethanol	3
Dimethylformamide	13
Dimethyl sulfoxide	37
Water	78

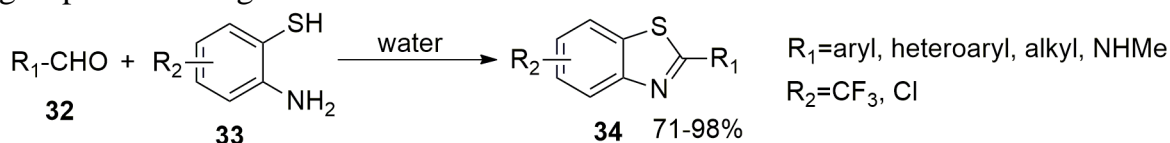
#### 4. Improvement in chemo-, enantio-, regio- and stereoselectivity

Besides improvements in the rate and yield, the improvements in chemo-, enantio- and regio-, stereoselectivities of reactions under water conditions have been noticed not only in Lewis acid catalyzed reactions but also in non-catalyzed DA cycloaddition. For example, according to the report by Otto and Engberts [37], in comparison with organic media, the enantioselectivity of Cu-catalyzed DA cycloaddition of (*E*)-3-phenyl-1-(pyridin-2-yl)prop-2-en-1-one **30** with cyclopenta-1,3-diene **1** to produce **31** was highly increased by the application of H<sub>2</sub>O as the reaction solvent (Table 8) [37].

Table 8. The improvement of enantioselectivity of DA cycloaddition by water

	
Solvent	ee (%)
CH <sub>3</sub> CN	17
THF	24
EtOH	39
CHCl <sub>3</sub>	44
H <sub>2</sub> O	74

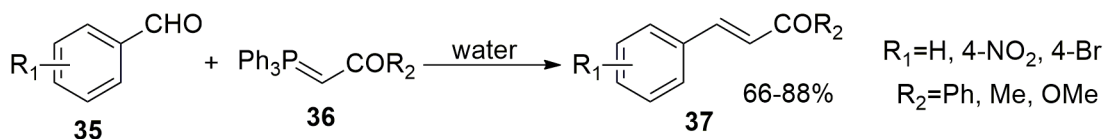
Chakraborti et al. [38] have described the formation of aryl alkyl/2-alkyl benzothiazolines and styryl/ heteroaryl/2-aryl benzothiazoles under water conditions (Scheme 5) [38]. Diverse types of aldehydes **32** (heteroaryl, aryl, and alkyl) were treated with 2-aminothiophenols **33** in water to obtain the respective substituted benzo[d]thiazoles **34**. The reactions were chemoselective without debenzoylation/*O*-dealkylation, thia-Michael addition, reduction of the  $\alpha,\beta$ -unsaturated carbonyl or nitro groups, and substitution of the nitro group or the halogen atom.



Scheme 5. Catalyst-free reaction of 2-aminothiophenols with aldehydes in water.

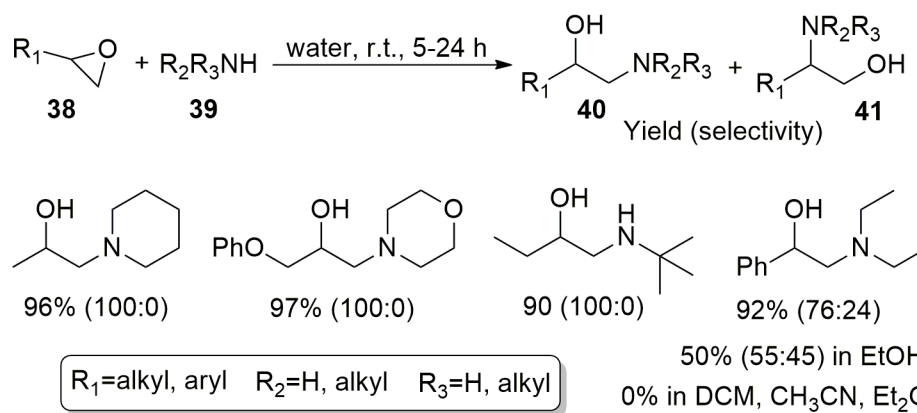
In organic synthesis, the Wittig olefination [39,40] is a significant reaction as it produces olefins with a high level of stereoselectivity [41]. Dambacher et al. [42] described diverse examples of Wittig olefination in H<sub>2</sub>O and organic media by using numerous aryl aldehydes **35** and ylides **36** (Scheme 6) [42]. In terms of selectivity and yield, H<sub>2</sub>O was

observed to be the most effective solvent for the formation of olefins **37** as compared to organic media such as dichloromethane, benzene, and methanol. The investigation also revealed that the solubility of reactants in H<sub>2</sub>O was not a significant parameter to accomplish appropriate *E/Z*-ratios and chemical yields as exposed in the successful Wittig olefinations of protected, aliphatic and heterocyclic aldehydes.



*Scheme 6. Catalyst-free Wittig olefinations of ylides and aromatic aldehydes in water.*

Formation of **40** and **41** through aminolysis of a diverse range of substituted epoxides **39** through aromatic and aliphatic amines **39** in H<sub>2</sub>O has described by Azizi and Saidi [43].  $\alpha$ -Amino alcohols in this economical and practical method were developed under milder conditions with high regio- and stereoselectivity (except styrene oxide) and in excellent yields (Scheme 7). This water-based approach also offers operational simplicity, simple purification procedure, and environmentally friendly conditions.



*Scheme 7. Development of  $\beta$ -aminoalcohols through aminolysis in H<sub>2</sub>O.*

Azoulay et al. [44] reported a highly efficient approach for enantioselective addition of aniline **26** to (2*R*,3*S*)-2,3-diphenyloxirane **42** by using a bipyridine-scandium organocatalytic system (1.2 mol % of a chiral bipyridine ligand **45** and 1 mol % of Sc(OSO<sub>3</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>H<sub>25</sub>)<sub>3</sub> **44**) in pure H<sub>2</sub>O and other organic solvents. In water as a solvent, chiral  $\alpha$ -amino alcohol **43** was synthesized in excellent yield (89%) as well as in high enantioselectivity (91%) (Table 9). Noteworthy, in this environmentally benign and

simple methodology for the organocatalytic asymmetric ring opening reaction, the employment of H<sub>2</sub>O as a medium provided excellent enantio-selectivity and yield than that of DCM.

A highly stereoselective and facile approach for the development of highly substituted chiral tetrahydro naphthalene scaffolds attached with an oxazolidine entity **49** from the reaction of **46** with **47** in the presence of organocatalytic **48** has been developed by Zhong and co-workers [45]. The course included catalytic tandem Michael addition/nitrone development/intramolecular [3+2] olefin-nitrone cycloaddition. During the reaction conditions optimization, the authors examined various reaction media and H<sub>2</sub>O was found to be the best solvent in terms of selectivity when compared to organic solvents (dichloromethane or hexane) (Table 10). The H<sub>2</sub>O employed in the scheme not only constitutes an eco-benign medium but also assists to enhance the stereoselectivity and reactivity.

Table 9. Effect of the solvent on the organocatalyticenantioselective addition reaction

Solvent	Sc(III)	Yield (%)	ee (%)
DCM	Sc(OTf) <sub>3</sub>	85	74
THF/H <sub>2</sub> O (9:1)	Sc(OTf) <sub>3</sub>	<5	71
H <sub>2</sub> O	Sc(OTf) <sub>3</sub>	15	85
H <sub>2</sub> O	Sc(OSO <sub>3</sub> C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>25</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	89	91

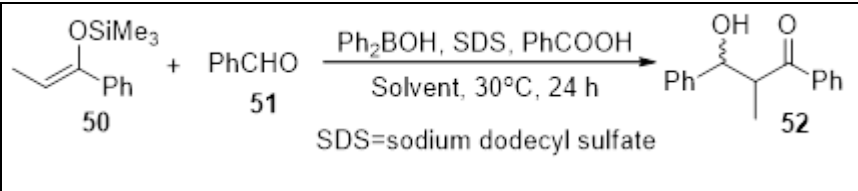
Table 10. One-pot synthesis of functionalized tetrahydro naphthalene in various solvents

Solvent	Additive	Yield (%)	d.r.	ee (%)
DCM	AcOH	71	68:32	>99
Hexane	none	35	72:28	>99
H <sub>2</sub> O	AcOH	56	92:8	>99
H <sub>2</sub> O	PhCO <sub>2</sub> H	67	92:8	>99



Mori et al. [46] generated boron enolates by using a diphenylborinic acid (in catalytic amount) and used them for stereoselective aldol reactions of carbocation equivalents in H<sub>2</sub>O. Treatment of (Z)-trimethyl((1-phenylprop-1-en-1-yl)oxy)silane **50** with benzaldehyde **51** in the presence of sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), benzoic acid and a boron source (Ph<sub>2</sub>BOH) at room temperature for 24h under aqueous condition afforded aldol adduct **52** in high diastereoselectivity and yield (Table 11). On the other hand, conventional organo-boron-catalyzed reactions requiring extremely anhydrous conditions were carried out at lower temperatures. Noteworthy, the employment of H<sub>2</sub>O as reaction medium was important in this reaction. Nearly no respective aldol adduct was achieved in organic media, for instance, dichloromethane and ethyl ether, and poor yield of aldol adduct was realized under the neat reaction condition (Table 11).

*Table 11. Organoboron-catalyzed organic synthesis in H<sub>2</sub>O*

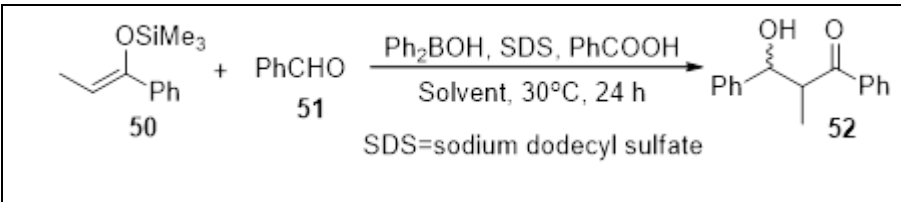
		
Solvent	Yield (%)	Syn/anti
Neat	24%	90/10
DCM	Trace	-
Et <sub>2</sub> O	Trace	-
Water	90%	92/8

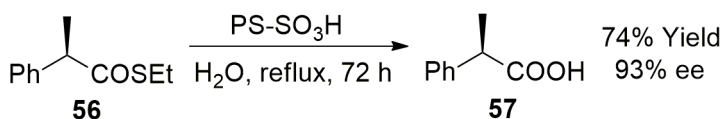
In recent years, Kobayashi and co-workers [47] investigated the effectiveness of optically active ligands together with copper(II) towards stereoselective aldol reaction. Treatment of (Z)-trimethyl(pent-2-en-3-yloxy)silane **53** with benzaldehyde **51** in the presence of bis(oxazoline) chiral ligand **55** and a catalytic amount of copper(II) triflate in H<sub>2</sub>O/THF at -15°C afforded aldol adduct **54** in excellent enantioselectivity (81%) and yield (81%) (Table 12). On the contrary, dry organic media; for example, dry DCM and dry EtOH, provided much lower selectivities and yields [47]. Silyl cation species, which developed from (Z)-trimethyl(pent-2-en-3-yloxy)silane **53** during aldol reaction, were presumably responsible for the reduction of enantioselectivity in stereoselective aldol reactions in anhydrous solvents because they are capable to catalyze the aldol reactions to deliver racemic products. In contrast, these silyl cation species are quickly hydrolyzed in aqueous media; therefore, the unrequired reaction route avoided.

Racemization is an inescapable issue when hydrolysis of thioester **56** is performed under basic conditions. PS-SO<sub>3</sub>H-catalyzed acidic hydrolysis of achiral (R)-S-ethyl 2-

phenylpropane thioate **56** smoothly proceeded to give excellent enantioselectivity (93% ee) under the condition of refluxing H<sub>2</sub>O for 72 h (Scheme 8) [48]. This is one of the benefits of the acidic hydrolysis of thioesters in H<sub>2</sub>O.

Table 12. Acid-catalyzed stereoselective organic synthesis in aqueous solution

			
Solvent	Yield (%)	Syn/anti	ee (%)
H <sub>2</sub> O/THF	81	78/22	81
Dry ethanol	10	70/30	41
Dry DCM	11	68/32	20

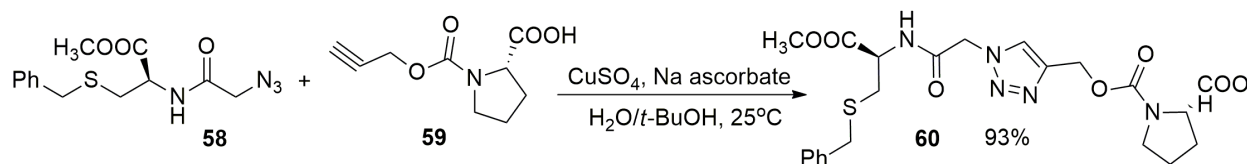


Scheme 8. Aqueous synthesis of (*R*)-2-phenylpropanoic acid using PS-SO<sub>3</sub>H as catalyst.

## 5. Towards milder reaction conditions and catalyst-free synthesis

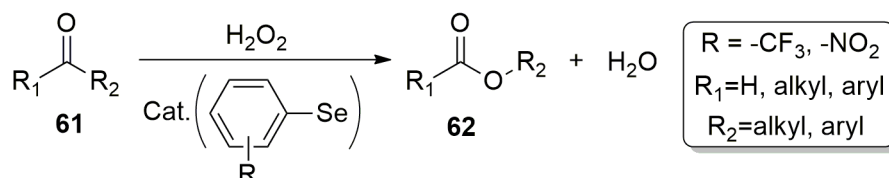
Certainly, for a synthetic procedure to be eco-friendly, it is important and valuable that the reaction could be performed under mild conditions. In literature, there are numerous examples in which the employment of water has led reactions towards milder conditions [49–51].

Triazoles exhibit significant biological potencies, for instance, anti-bacterial, anti-epileptic, anti-viral and anti-allergic behaviors and are important industrial compounds. Numerous approaches have been reported in the literature for the construction of triazole frameworks; nonetheless, most of these approaches are expensive and difficult to handle and desired accelerating ligands and harsh conditions. The Cu(I)-catalyzed alkyne-azide[3+2] cycloaddition reaction (CuAAC) reported by Rostovtsev et al. [52] has been an outstanding example for formation of triazoles under milder aqueous conditions. In this approach, reaction of acetylide, which is produced by the *in situ* reduction of a Cu(II) salt in H<sub>2</sub>O without or with an assistance of organic co-solvent, with organic azides (for example, (*R*)-methyl 2-(2-azidoacetamido)-3-(benzylthio)propanoate **58**) afforded triazoles (for example, **60**) in nearly quantitative yields. This approach did not require accelerating ligands or the protection of reaction mixture from atmospheric oxygen (Scheme 9).



*Scheme 9. CuAAC reaction example for formation of triazoles under milder aqueous conditions.*

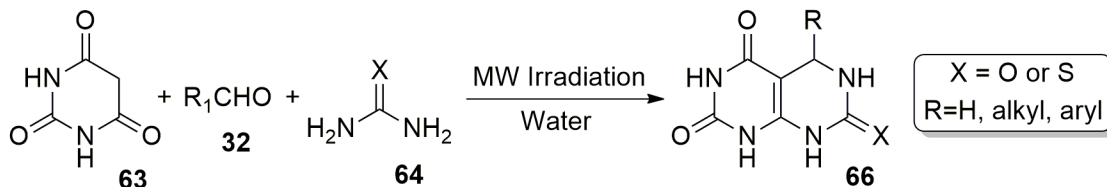
In organic synthesis, the Baeyer-Villiger oxidation (*aka* Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement) of ketones and aldehydes to the respective lactones or esters has been the broadly employed reaction [53]. Conventionally, it is carried out with an organic peroxy acid for example peroxyacetic acid. However, the utilization of a peroxy acid leads to the development of one equivalent of the respective carboxylic acid salt as unwanted impurity, which has to be disposed of or recycled. Additionally, organic peroxy acids are dangerous for health (on account of shock sensitivity) or/and expensive which minimizes their commercial utility. The storage and transport of peroxyacetic acid, for instance, have been strictly restricted, making its application prohibitive. Therefore, growing attention has been devoted on the formation of techniques deploying aqueous hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) as the major oxidizer, preferably in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as reaction solvent in order to perform reaction under milder conditions [53,54]. The striking example of Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement in aqueous  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  was disclosed by Sheldon and co-workers [55], in which selenium-catalyzed reaction was performed in the presence of aqueous  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to afford **62** from **61** (Scheme 10) [55].



*Scheme 10. Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement in aqueous  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ .*

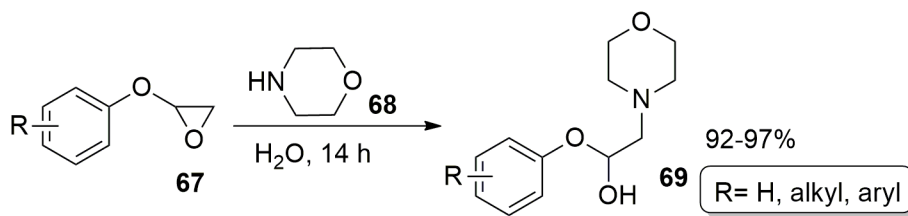
Owing to numerous pharmacological activities of pyrimido[4,5-*d*]pyrimidines **66**, these compounds have been regarded as significant frameworks. The literature approaches for the formation of pyrimido[4,5-*d*]pyrimidines **66** involved multi-step synthetic steps and harsh conditions, *e. g.* the application of tosylates as catalyst, using phosphoryl chloride with dimethylformamide as a solvent [56]. In order to overcome these problems, an eco-friendly and practically useful methodology for one-pot formation of **66** from the reaction of barbituric acid **63**, aldehyde **32** and thiourea or urea **64** in the presence of water as reaction medium under microwave irradiation has been reported by Mazaahir et al. [56]. This technique completely circumvents the application of corrosive bases or acids, hazardous organic solvents, and catalysts (Scheme 11). Water-insoluble solid

pyrimido[4,5-*d*]pyrimidines produced in short reaction time were in high purity and yield [57].



*Scheme 11. Development of pyrimido[4,5-*d*]pyrimidine frameworks under water conditions.*

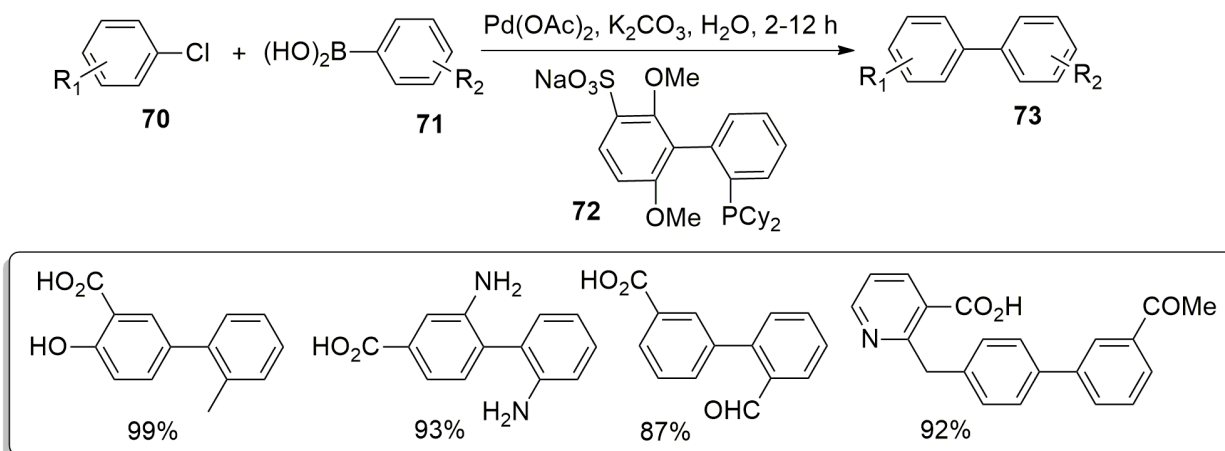
Aminolysis is a significant process for the formation of different important compounds. A broad spectrum of procedures have been established for epoxide ring opening, for instance, the use of silica, alkali metal perchlorates, metal halides, metal triflates, metal alkoxides, metal amides, alumina, enzymes and montmorillonite clay as activators or catalysts. Nevertheless, most of these catalysts desired in stoichiometric amounts and are expensive, difficult to handle and moisture sensitive. Also, with these catalysts, some sterically hindered amines and deactivated aromatic amines fail to open up epoxide rings or still need a high pressure or temperature [58]. Recently, effective aminolysis of a library of epoxide-containing compounds **67** by aromatic or aliphatic amines (for example **68**) was carried out in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  by Azizi and Saidi [43] in order to overcome issues, which were reported in the literature (Scheme 12). The substituted 2-morpholino-1-phenoxyethanol **69** was attained under mild conditions in excellent yield and selectivity without any organic co-solvent or catalyst.



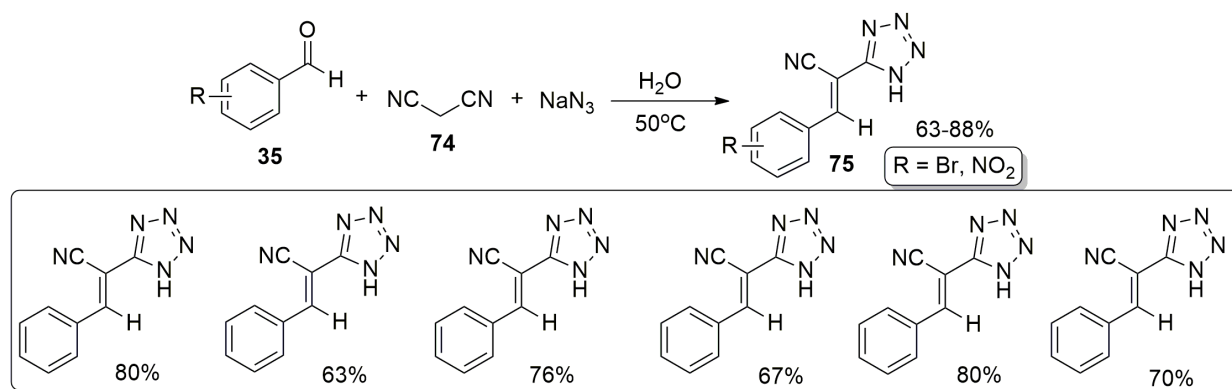
*Scheme 12. Formation of 2-morpholino-1-phenoxyethanol in aqueous medium.*

Organo-boron compounds are mostly useful reagents because of low toxicity, high stability, and ease of handling. Particularly, they have been extensively utilized in Suzuki-Miyaura cross-coupling reactions. Therefore, in this reaction, the application of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as a reaction medium has been an interesting challenge [49]. In 2005, Anderson and Buchwald [59] reported a novel sulfonated ligand **72** which was used to develop an activated complex for conducting Suzuki-Miyaura cross-coupling reaction of boronic acids **71** with aryl chlorides **70** under aqueous conditions to afford coupling products **73** (Scheme 13) [59]. In most cases, low catalyst loadings (0.1–0.5 mol%) and room

temperature conditions were used to accomplish coupling reaction. Fortunately, a wide range of boronic acids **71** or aryl chlorides **70** with a diverse range of functional groups coupled under these aqueous conditions without the demand of any protecting groups.



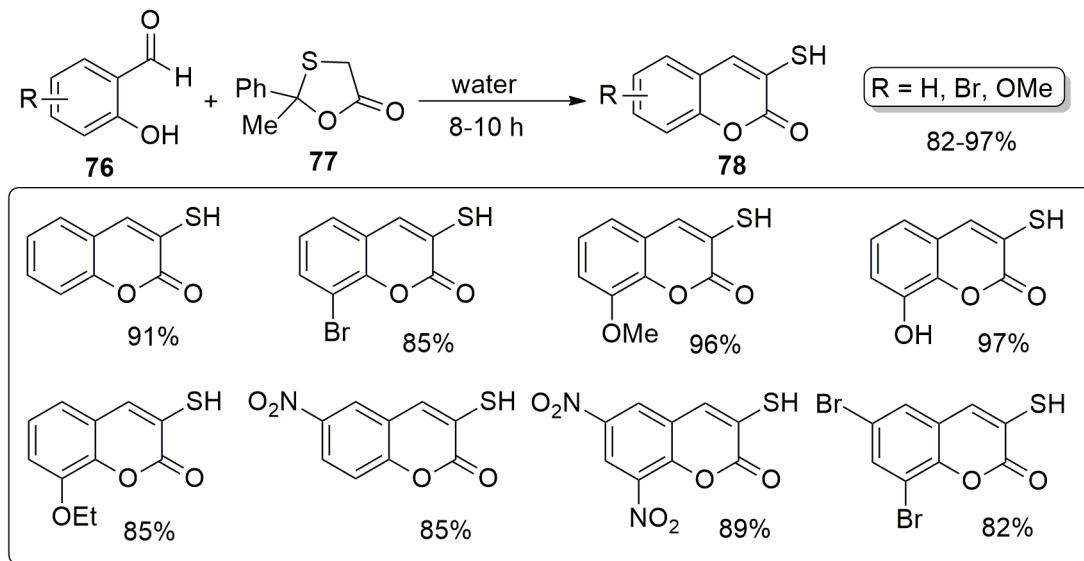
*Scheme 13. Suzuki-Miyaura cross-coupling under aqueous conditions and sulfonated ligand.*



*Scheme 14. 5-Substituted-tetrazoles synthesis under catalytic-free and milder aqueous conditions.*

Tetrazoles have gained significant consideration on account of their broad spectrum of utilities in rocket propellants, explosives, photography, information recording systems, and pharmaceuticals. These are important ligands for numerous valuable functionalizations and also intermediates for diverse of nitrogen-containing heterocyclic compounds. Most techniques reported in literature for the formation of tetrazole frameworks have disadvantages; for example, tedious workup, difficulty in preparing and/or obtaining the starting materials, harsh reaction conditions, long reaction times, low yields, application of high boiling solvents and the use of expensive and toxic reagents are some to mention [60]. In order to overcome these problems, Tisseh et al. [61] developed the catalytic-free multi-component one-pot domino Knoevenagel condensation

and 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reaction of sodium azide, malonodinitrile **74** and carbonyl compounds **35** under milder aqueous conditions to synthesize respective 5-substituted-tetrazoles **75**. This green approach offered good to excellent yields (63–88%, Scheme 14) [61].

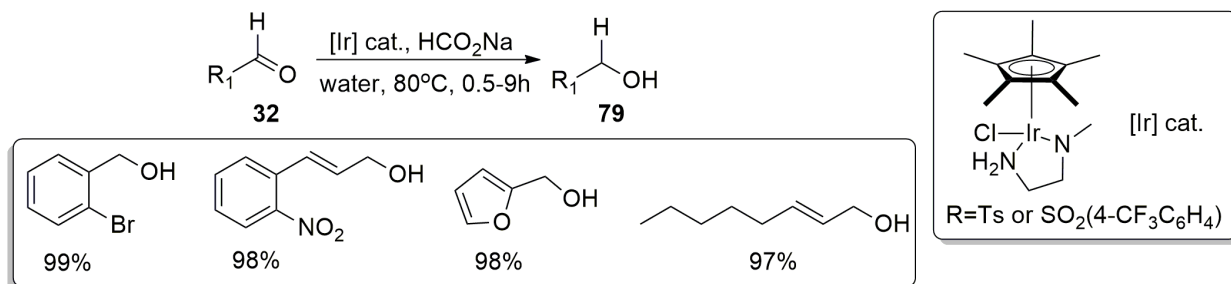


*Scheme 15. Synthesis of 3-sulfanyl-2H-chromen-2-ones under aqueous conditions.*

Coumarins and 3-mercapto coumarins belong to the important family of heterocycles existed in numerous natural products which have found broad applications such as useful medicinal products, laser dyes, dispersed fluorescent, in the preparation of optical brighteners, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals, perfumes and additives in food [62]. Many traditional methods to form coumarin skeletons are well known, which include Wittig condensation, Reformatsky, Perkin, Knoevenagel and Pechmann reactions. To expedite these traditional methods for synthesis of coumarin frameworks, some variations in terms of reaction conditions and catalysts including cation-exchange resins, ionic liquids, W/ZrO<sub>2</sub> solid acid, Amberlyst-15, Nafion-H, clays, zeolite, sodium hydroxide in water, organo-palladium and solid-phase synthesis have been established. In contrast, only a few approaches have been reported on the formation of 3-mercapto coumarins **78** (aka. 3-sulfanyl-2H-chromen-2-one). However, all of the approaches suffer from many shortcomings including low selectivity, tedious workup, low yields, long reaction times, use of expensive reagents, the requirement of high amounts of catalysts and the generation of large amounts of toxic waste [63]. In order to overcome these issues, Yadav and co-workers [63] reported the preparation of 3-sulfanyl-2H-chromen-2-ones **78** via mercaptoacetylation cyclization reaction of substituted 2-hydroxybenzaldehyde **76** with 2-methyl-2-phenyl-1,3-oxathiolan-5-one **77** under aqueous conditions. The 3-sulfanyl-2H-chromen-2-ones **78** were attained in high yields (82–97%) (Scheme 15) [63]. In this green,

efficient and convenient procedure, H<sub>2</sub>O itself acted as catalyst during cyclization reaction by hydrogen bonding and thus circumvented the employment of any other catalyst.

Double bonds reduction has been an extensively employed approach for both interconversion of the functional group and the insertion of chiral centers in achiral entities. Nevertheless, this approach usually involved the employment of pressure reaction vessels and hazardous hydrogen gas and, hence recently, transfer hydrogenation has been developed as a safer, cheaper and more reliable alternative [64]. Noteworthy, in recent years, the application of H<sub>2</sub>O as the reaction medium in transfer hydrogenation has received considerable attention [65]. For instance, Wu et al. [66] reported a chemoselective and efficient methodology for iridium-catalyzed reduction of aromatic and aliphatic aldehydes **32** to alcohols **79** under very mild aqueous conditions (Scheme 16) [66]. They reported that their method tolerated various functional groups such as nitro, olefins, and halogens; did not desire vacuum conditions; and operated with low catalyst loading.



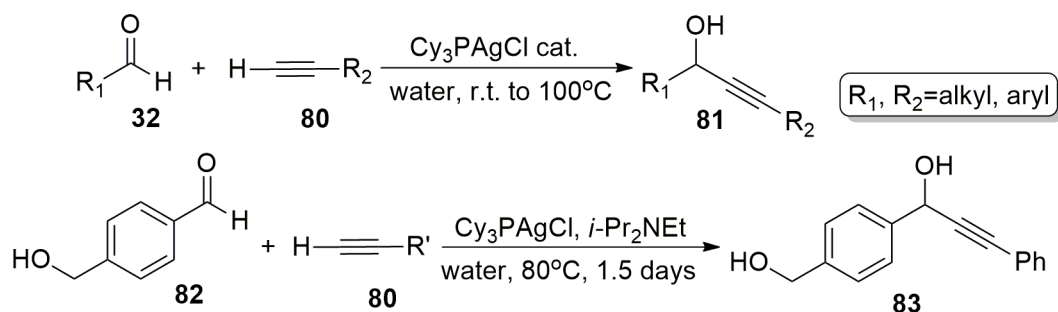
*Scheme 16. Aqueous transfer hydrogenation of aldehydes.*

Recently, Li and co-workers [67] described a highly effective alkynylation of aromatic and aliphatic aldehydes **32** with substituted alkene **80** by using phosphine/silver complexes as catalysts in H<sub>2</sub>O to obtain **81** [67]. The synthetic approach was dually promoted by H<sub>2</sub>O and electron-releasing phosphine ligand to provide good to excellent yields of 63–98%. A hydroxyl group-containing aldehyde *viz.* 4-(hydroxymethyl)benzaldehyde **82** was successfully alkynylated to 1-(4-(hydroxymethyl)phenyl)-3-phenylprop-2-yn-1-ol **83** without protecting the hydroxyl group (Scheme 17).

Another utility that has been rarely investigated is the selective functionalization of H<sub>2</sub>O-soluble biopolymers such as oligosaccharides, oligonucleotides, and polypeptides. It has been also reported that H<sub>2</sub>O has promising potential for carrying out carbon-carbon bond creating reactions with unprotected sugars under mild aqueous alkaline conditions. Also, in literature, various H<sub>2</sub>O-soluble organometallic catalytic systems have been reported to

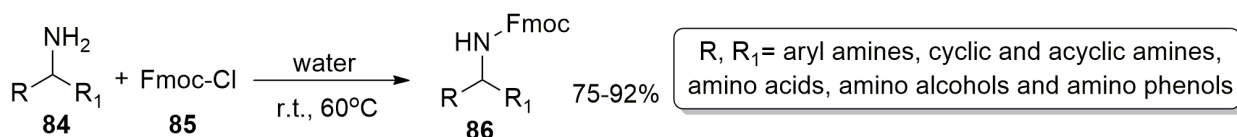


shorten the long synthetic pathways by eliminating steps of multiple protection and deprotection [68–70].



*Scheme 17. Alkynylation of aldehyde derivatives by using phosphine/silver complexes in  $H_2O$ .*

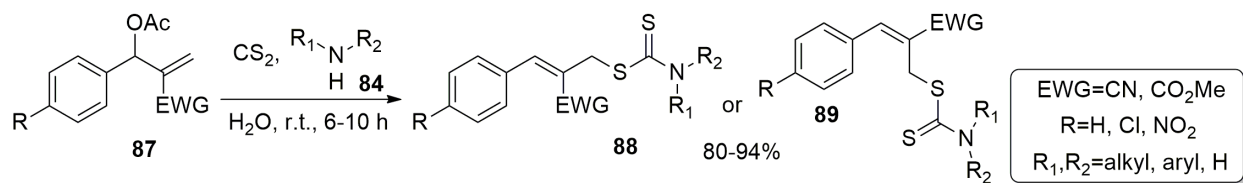
Branco and Gawande [71] have described an eco-friendly and novel 9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl (Fmoc) protection of a diverse range of amino phenols, amino alcohols, amino acids, and aromatic and aliphatic amines **84** in  $H_2O$  as reaction solvent under catalyst-free and mild conditions using 9-fluorenylmethyl chloroformate **85** (Scheme 18) [71]. The Fmoc protected compounds **86** were attained in high yields (75–92%).



*Scheme 18. Fmoc protection of amines and amino acids in aqueous media.*

The Baylis-Hillman (BH) reaction has gained great attention owing to the fascinating tandem Michael/aldol reaction sequence catalyzed through a Lewis acid or a Lewis base and the valuable potential of synthesizing multi-functional products [72]. In order to establish a green, catalyst-free and stereoselective protocol for formation of (*Z*)- and (*E*)-allyldithiocarbamate derivatives (**88** and **89**) from acetates of BH adducts **87**, Yadav et al. [73] have developed a three-component one-pot coupling reaction of acetated-BH adducts **87** with substituted amines **84** and carbon disulfide in the presence of water as reaction solvent at room temperature [73]. The allyl dithiocarbamate derivatives (**88** and **89**) were in excellent yields (80–94%) (Scheme 19). The reaction route involved the nucleophilic substitution of acetate groups by the dithiocarbamate ions using  $H_2O$  as a promoter and a solvent; hence, eliminating the application of toxic solvents and catalysts.

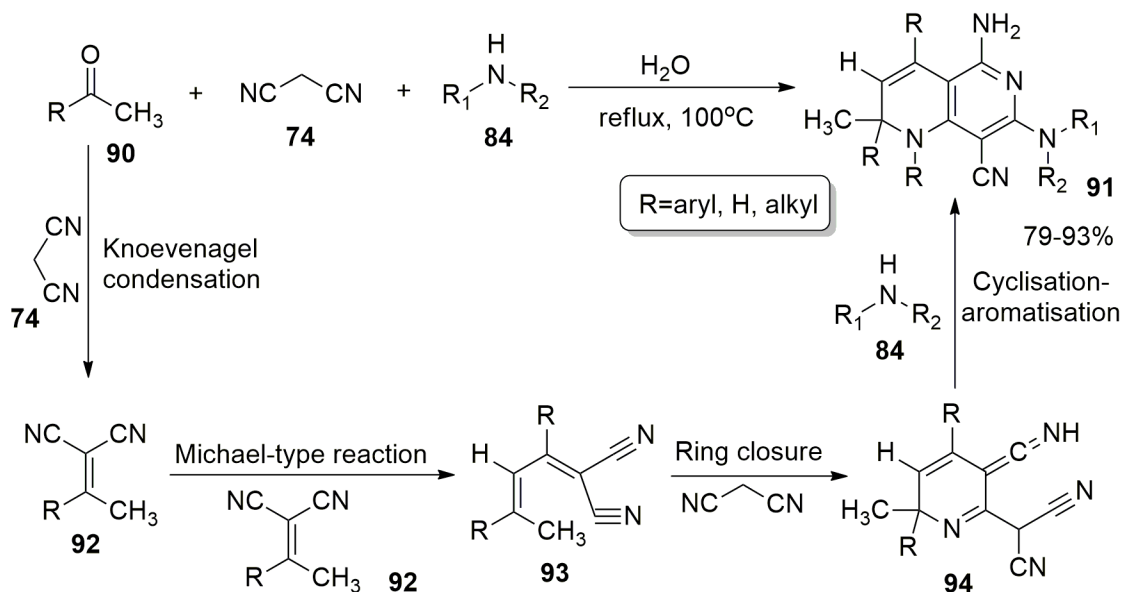




*Scheme 19. Coupling reaction for formation allyldithiocarbamate derivatives in water.*

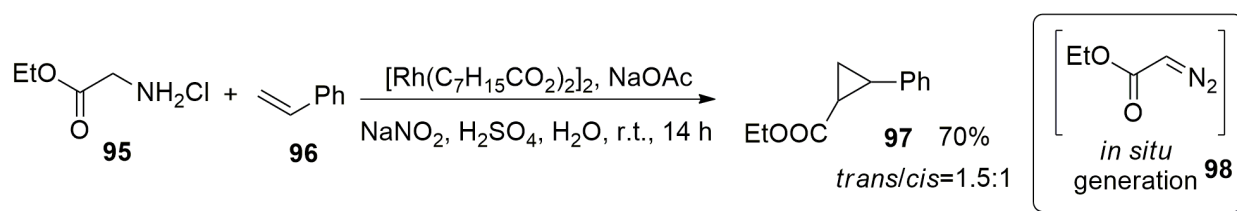
Moberg and Rákos [74] documented the first pseudo-five-component one-pot catalytic-free formation of 1,2-dihydro[1,6]naphthyridine derivatives **91** from malononitrile **74**, amines **84** and methyl ketones **90** under mild aqueous conditions (Scheme 20) in high yields (79–93%) [74]. The **92-94** were the significant precursors in the formation of 1,2-dihydro[1,6]naphthyridines **91**.

The 1,2-dihydro[1,6]naphthyridine derivatives **91** have been observed in several natural marine products with bioactive affinities such as selective antagonistic potency for 5-HT<sub>4</sub> receptors, allosteric inhibition of Akt2 and Akt1 and Akt2, HIV-1 integrase inhibition and anti-proliferative efficacy [51]. Classically, the preparation of [1,6]-naphthyridines was performed either using multistep synthetic route or expensive catalysts, but these eco-friendly procedures provided a valuable alternative to synthesize bioactive drugs. The formation of 1,2-dihydro[1,6]naphthyridines **91** using the above-mentioned approach can be performed under anhydrous conditions without the use of toxic organic solvents and expensive catalysts [75,76].



*Scheme 20. One-pot catalytic-free formation of 1,2-dihydro[1,6]naphthyridine derivatives in water.*

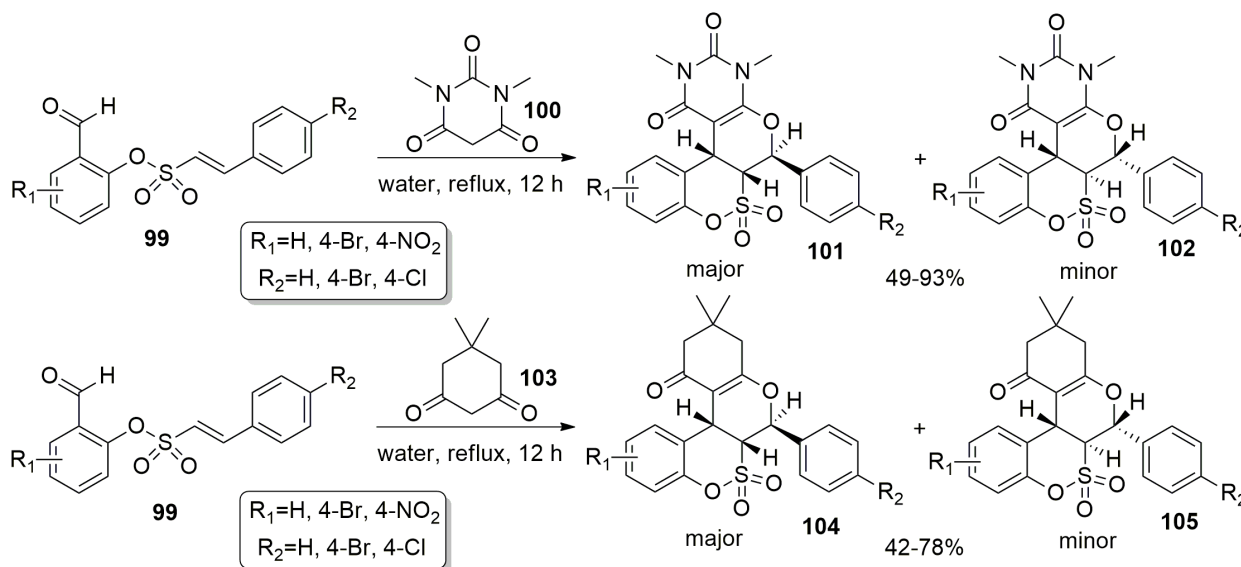
Wurz and Charette [77] reported the asymmetric and racemic cyclopropanation reactions of several alkanes **96** in H<sub>2</sub>O catalyzed by transition metals. However, this approach towards cyclopropanation included the preparation and subsequent utilization of highly explosive diazoacetic ester **98**. To resolve this problem, the same two researchers documented conditions permitting the *in situ* formation of the diazoacetic ester **98**, starting reaction from ethyl glycinate hydrochloride **95** and introducing sulfuric acid and sodium nitrite, which then reacted with the styrene **96** and rhodium catalytic system to lead to the required cyclopropane **97** in moderate selectivity and high yield (Scheme 21). Furthermore, this reaction was accompanied effectively on a three grams scale, allowing a straightforward, secured and cheap approach to cyclopropane entities **97** [77].



*Scheme 21. Cyclopropane synthesis in H<sub>2</sub>O using an in situ generated diazoacetic ester.*

The domino-Knoevenagel-hetero-DA reaction introduced by Tietze [78] has been very popular for its promising sequential conversion. The reactions can be used for the construction of dihydropyran-containing compounds (**101**, **102**, **104** and **105**) and for the formation of several bioactive drugs [79]. In literature, amine-based catalytic systems and Lewis acid catalyzed reactions were reported for this reaction [80]. In order to eliminate the use of Lewis acid or catalyst, Ghandi et al. [81] described a one-pot methodology for the synthesis of tetrahydro-2H-pyrano[2,3-d]pyrimidines (**101** and **102**) and benzo- $\delta$ -sultones having hexahydro-2H-chromene (**104** and **105**) under aqueous conditions. A large range of 2-formyl-4-phenyl-(*E*)-2-phenylethanesulfonate derivatives **99** underwent a one-pot domino-Knoevenagel-hetero-DA reaction with 1,3-diethyl barbituric acid **100** and Meldrum's acid **103** in water (Schemes 22) [50].

The reaction between 2-formyl-4-phenyl-(*E*)-2-phenylethanesulfonate derivatives **99** and 1,3-dimethylbarbituric acid **100** in water produced respective adducts (**101** and **102**) in good to excellent yields (49–93%). Similarly, the reaction with Meldrum's acid in water afforded respective compounds (**104** and **105**) as mixtures of diastereomers in moderate yields (42–78%). The precursors **99** were synthesized by simple condensation of (*E*)-2-phenylethanesulfonyl chloride and 2-hydroxybenzaldehyde in propanone as solvent under basic conditions. The attractive features of this reaction were the avoidance of numerous sequential steps, short reaction time, use of water and simplicity [51].

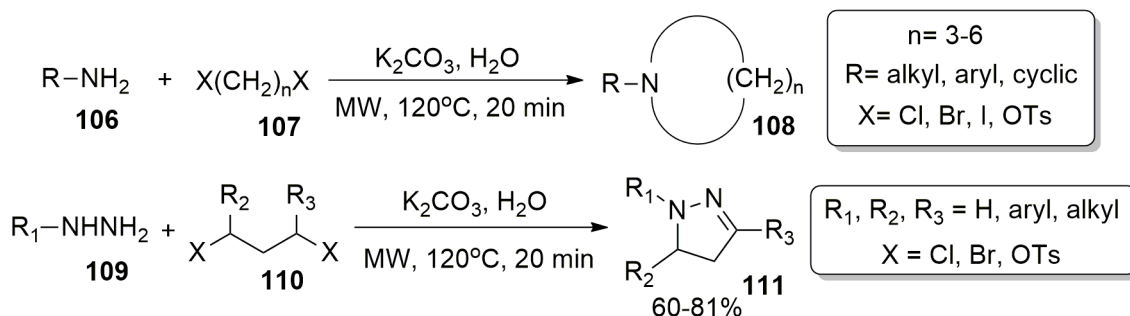


*Scheme 22. Catalytic-free preparation of hexahydro-2H-chromene-annulated and tetrahydro-2H-pyrano[2,3-d]pyrimidine-annulated benzo- $\delta$ -sultones in aqueous media.*

## 6. Simplification in the course of workup

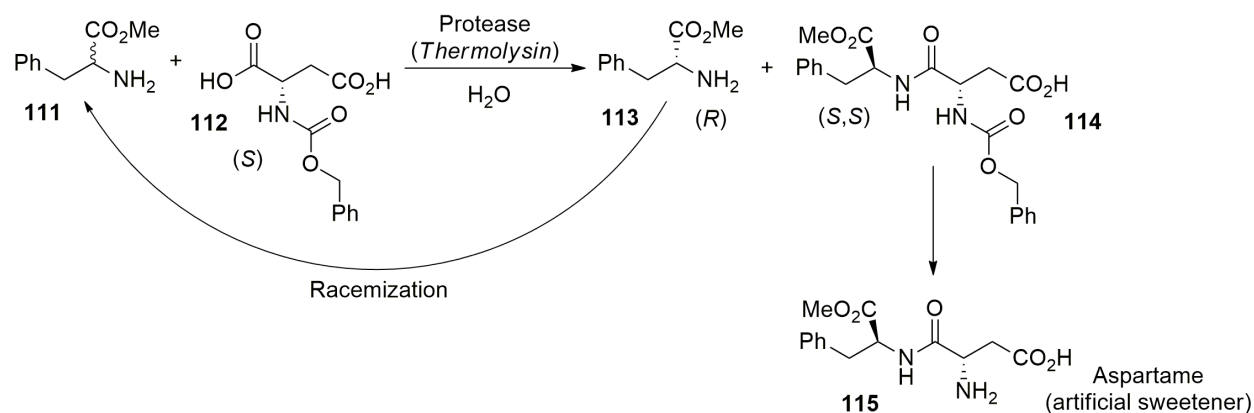
In organic synthesis, the workup process, through chromatography purifications or extractions, for example, may be responsible for the utilization of a large amount of solvent. In order to make the process eco-friendly and economically feasible, it is essential to simplify the workup process by converting multi-step synthesis into one-pot synthesis, using water as solvent in the workup step(s) instead of organic solvents or adopting such synthetic approaches, which replace the tedious separations (extractions or chromatography purifications for instance) with simple filtration. Investigations have revealed the tendency of water to convert tedious workup into simple work-up in many cases.

Amongst heterocyclic compounds, nitrogen-containing heterocycles have been extensively used as core framework of heterocycles in natural science and other areas of science [82]. Varma and co-workers [83] have established a novel procedure for the preparation of nitrogen-containing heterocyclic compounds (**108** and **111**) from aromatic, aliphatic and cyclic amines **106** and diazane **109**, respectively, and alkyl dihalides (**107** and **110**) (Scheme 23). Using water as solvent and microwave (MW) irradiation, reaction duration was decreased to 20 minutes, side reactions were eliminated and yields were enhanced. This technique provided the benefit of easy purification since phase isolation of the products (**108** or **111**) from the water occurred after the reaction and only decantation or filtration is required [83–86].



*Scheme 23. Formation of nitrogen-containing heterocycles.*

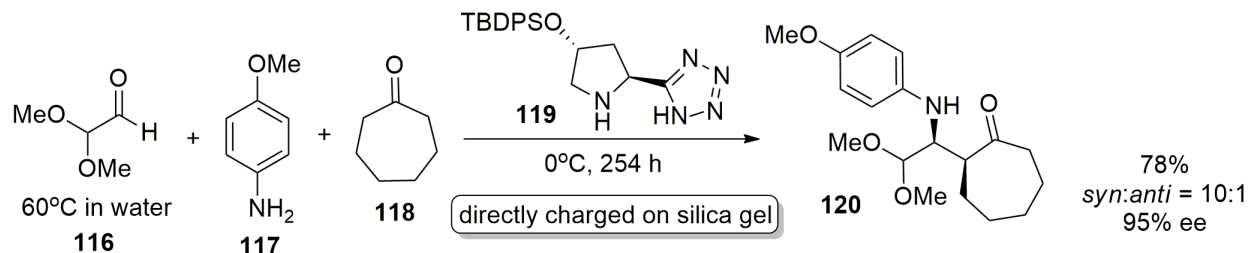
The enzyme-based highly enantioselective hydrolysis of amides has been broadly investigated. These organic reactions are catalyzed by lipases, amidases, and acylases. Aspartame **115**, a popular low-calorie non-saccharide intense sweetener has been prepared by thermolysin (TML), a thermostable neutral metalloproteinase enzyme (Scheme 24). In this synthetic process, the l-enantiomer of racemic methyl L-phenylalaninate **111** selectively reacted with the  $\alpha$ -carbonyl moiety of *N*-protected (*S*)-2-aminosuccinic acid **112** in water to produce **113** and **114**. This procedure is superior from the point of view of yield and is more eco-friendly than the reported methods [87]. Also, this technique provides the benefit of easy purification.



*Scheme 24. Synthesis of aspartame: an artificial sweetener.*

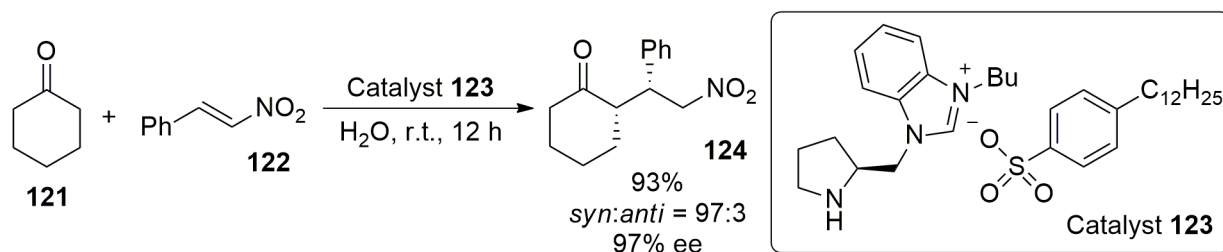
Hayashi and co-workers [88] disclosed an effective organocatalytic system **119**, containing both tetrazole and siloxy (R<sub>3</sub>SiO-) moieties within a tetrahydropyrrole framework, for the asymmetric Mannich reaction of numerous cyclic and aliphatic ketones (for example **118**) with glyoxal 1-(dimethyl acetal) **116** and 4-methoxyaniline **117** under aqueous conditions to deliver **120** (Scheme 25) [88]. In particular, aqueous solutions of the aldehydes were employed and no additional volume of H<sub>2</sub>O was essential to achieve high enantioselectivities and yields. This allows to directly charge the crude

mixture on a column chromatography for purification; therefore, avoiding the step of extraction.



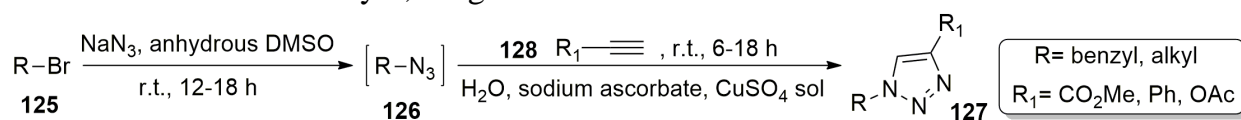
*Scheme 25. Extraction-free Mannich reaction catalyzed by organocatalytic system.*

The group of Cheng [89] described an asymmetric Michael reaction between oxocyclohexane **121** and nitroolefines **122** in water using a surfactant-kind asymmetric organocatalytic system **123** to obtain **124** (Scheme 26) [89]. The reaction provided adducts **124** in high stereoselectivities and yields and operated at room temperature without any additional promoters. Generally, no organic solvent required for the process of extraction since the separation of the crude adduct was carried out by phase separation or filtration.



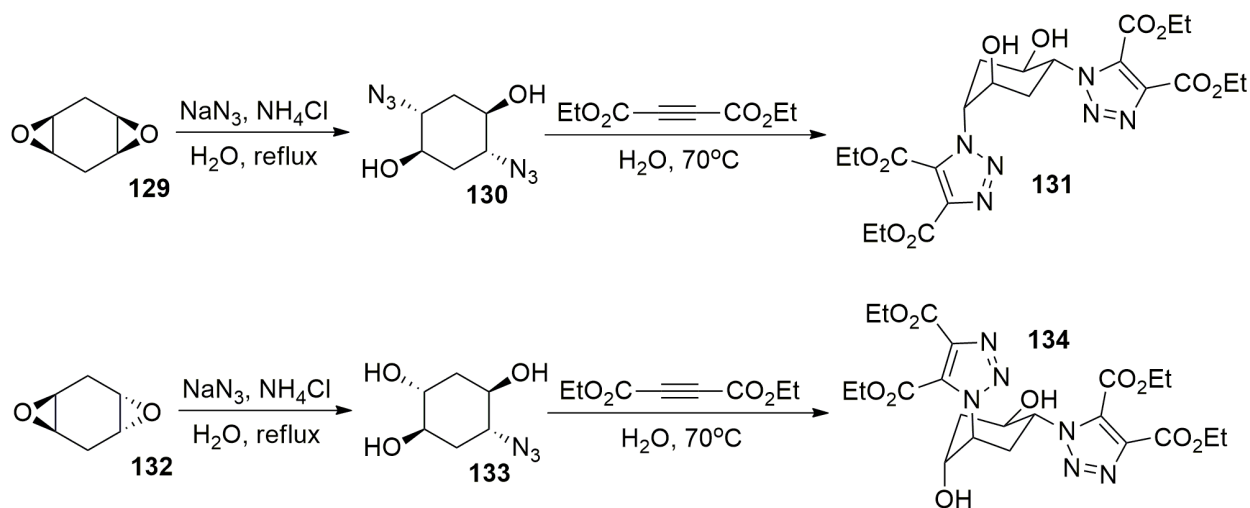
*Scheme 26. Surfactant-type organocatalyzed Michael reaction in water.*

Recently, Kacprzak [90] reported a straightforward two steps, a one-pot technique for the regioselective synthesis of 1,2,3-triazole derivatives **127**. Aqueous copper sulfate, sodium ascorbate, alkyne and water introduced into the dimethyl sulfoxide solution of aryl or alkyl azides **126** created *in situ* reaction of **125** with sodium azide in anhydrous dimethyl sulfoxide (Scheme 27). The 1,2,3-triazole derivatives **127**, produced in high yields, frequently precipitated and purified by simply filtering the aqueous mixture and thus eliminating the step of purification *via* column chromatography. When mono substituted olefins **128** were used only 1,4-regioisomers were detected.



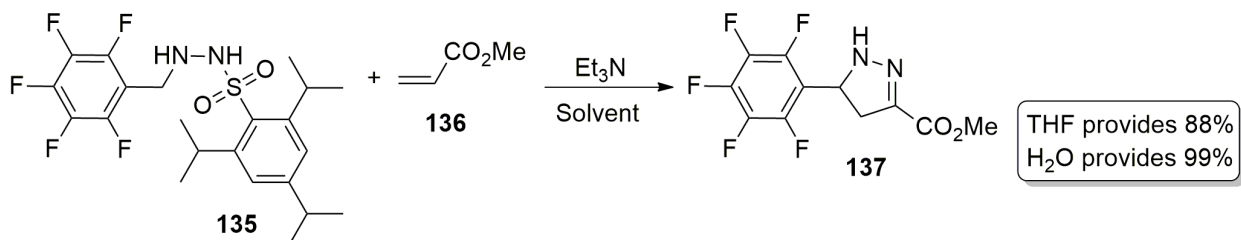
*Scheme 27. Regioselective synthesis of 1,2,3-triazole derivatives by Kacprzak.*

In the highly efficient and novel two-step protocol by Sharpless and co-workers, bistriazoles (**131** and **134**) were synthesized regioselectively by ring-opening reaction of isomeric diepoxides (**129** and **132**) with azide ion in the presences of  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at refluxing condition followed by treatment with 2-butyndioic acid in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Scheme 28). The crystalline solid bistriazoles (**131** and **134**) were separated by simply filtering the reaction mixture avoiding the chromatographic purification and extraction steps [91].



*Scheme 28. Two-step development of bistriazole frameworks.*

In 2007, Pang et al. [92] developed a novel method to synthesize the dihydropyrazoles **137** through the Bamford–Stevens reaction of  $N'$ -(2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorobenzyl)-2,4,6-tri(propan-2-yl)benzenesulfonylhydrazide **135** with nitriles or methyl acrylate **136** in the presences of triethylamine and water or THF (Scheme 29) [92]. Although the reaction could be performed in THF, the on-water method provided almost quantitative yields. The solid insoluble products were simply separated by filtering the reaction mixture.

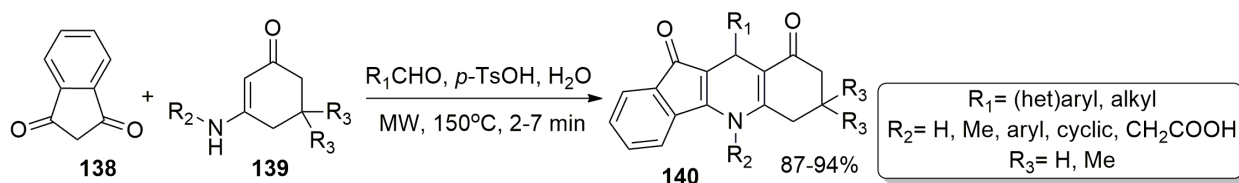


*Scheme 29. Synthesis of pyrazolines through Bamford-Stevens reaction.*

Tu et al. [93] reported an effective approach for synthesis of poly-functionalized indeno[1,2-*b*]quinolone derivatives **140** via a three-component reaction of functionalized enaminone derivatives **139**, (het)- alkyl or aryl aldehydes and 1,3-dioxindan **138** in the presence of water and 4-methylbenzenesulfonic acid as catalyst under MW irradiation

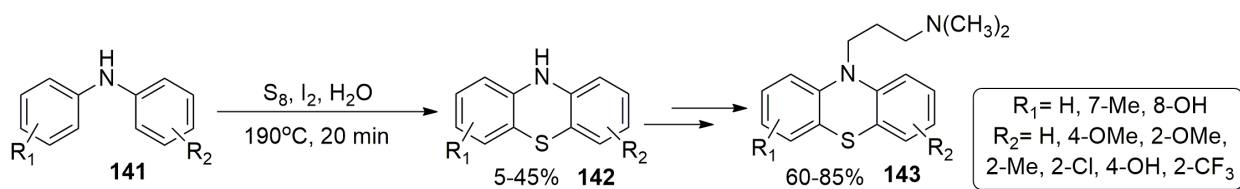


(Scheme 30) [93]. Aromatic aldehydes electron donating groups reacted within 5-7 min, while aromatic aldehydes with electron deactivating moieties reacted within 2-3 min. Also, some three-component reactions were also carried out through conventional heating at the 150°C, delivering the derivatives **140** in longer reaction time (2 h) and relatively low yields. Owing to the aqueous reaction conditions, the separation of products from reaction was also simple, *i.e.*, only neutralization followed by simple filtration was required for solid products separation.



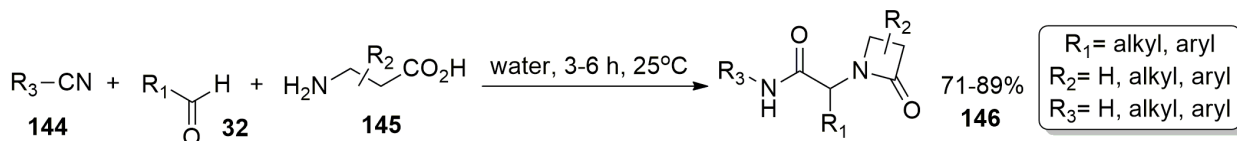
*Scheme 30. Formation of poly- functionalized indeno[1,2-b]quinolones.*

In order to investigate the structure-activity relationship for the binding of phenothiazines to HIV-1 TAR RNA, Mayer et al. [94] prepared a small series of 10*H*-phenothiazine derivatives **142** with unique substitutions around the scaffold (Scheme 31) [94]. The formation started by a mild iodo-catalyzed reaction of diarylamine derivatives **141** with sulphur in distilled H<sub>2</sub>O at a temperature of 190°C for 20 min to afford 10*H*-phenothiazine products **142** in appropriated yields. Attributed to the hydrophobic nature of the synthesized products **142**, they easily precipitated out it upon cooling and separated by simply filtering the reaction mixture. Additionally, alkylation at the NH followed by amination (MW irradiation, 100 °C, 40 min) provided frameworks **143** which were screened for binding to HIV-1 TAR RNA.



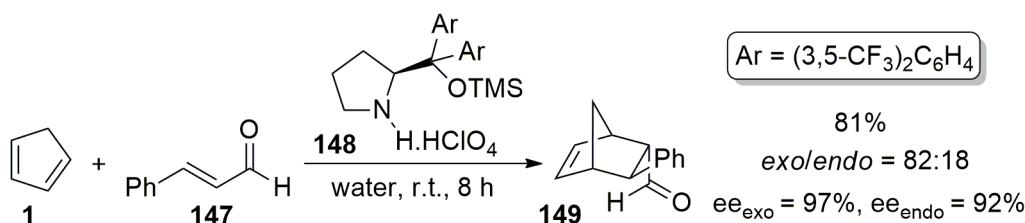
*Scheme 31. Synthesis of 10*H*-phenothiazines and aliphatic amine functionalized phenothiazines.*

In order to show the importance of H<sub>2</sub>O as reaction medium for the high-throughput formation of compounds in a parallel synthesis technique, Pirrung and Sarma [95,96] accomplished the Ugi multi-component condensation between four aldehydes **32**, four acids **145** and isonitriles **144** to achieve a series of 32  $\beta$ -lactams **146** (Scheme 32) [95,96]. Mostly, the  $\beta$ -lactams were precipitates and separated by simply filtering the reaction mixture.



*Scheme 32. Conversion access to a series of 32  $\beta$ -lactams with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as reaction medium.*

During the formation of an organo-catalyzed asymmetric DA cycloaddition of diene **1** and cinnamaldehyde **147** using a chiral salt of diarylprolinolsilyl ethers **148** to give **149**, the Hayashi and co-workers [97] revealed that scaling up the reaction to a twenty millimoles scale can eliminate the employment of organic solvents (Scheme 33) [97]. Further, the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  phase can be easily removed by distillation and decantation to obtain the product with excellent yields.



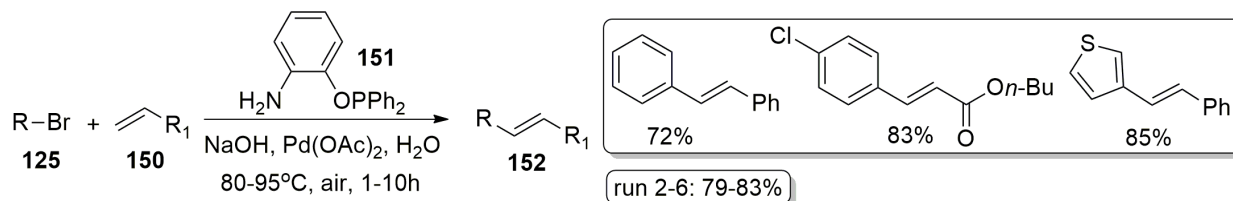
*Scheme 33. DA cycloaddition through asymmetric organocatalytic system.*

## 7. Enhancement in recycling the catalyst

The mission to implement principles of sustainable chemistry is a driving strength towards the formation of regenerable and reusable catalytic systems.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  plays a significant role during the process of catalyst recycling by offering assistance in the isolation of catalyst from the reaction mixture.

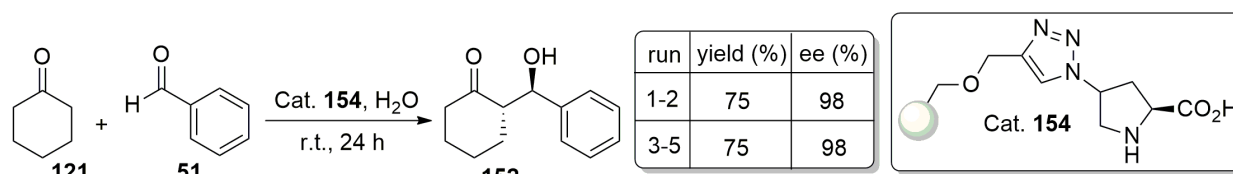
Recently, 2-((diphenylphosphino)oxy)aniline **151** as a new ligand has been introduced by Firouzabadi and co-workers [98] for the Heck cross-coupling reactions of aromatic halides **125** with ethenylbenzene **150** in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at 80-95°C in the presence of palladium acetate [98]. The 2-aminophenyl diphenylphosphinite **151**, which is an air and water stable ligand, was simply synthesized from the reaction of 2-aminophenol with chlorodiphenyl phosphine in excellent yield. After the reaction completion, the insoluble organocatalyst was simply isolated from the reaction mixture by centrifugation or filtration and recycled six-fold to give the product **152** in 79–83% yields (Scheme 34).





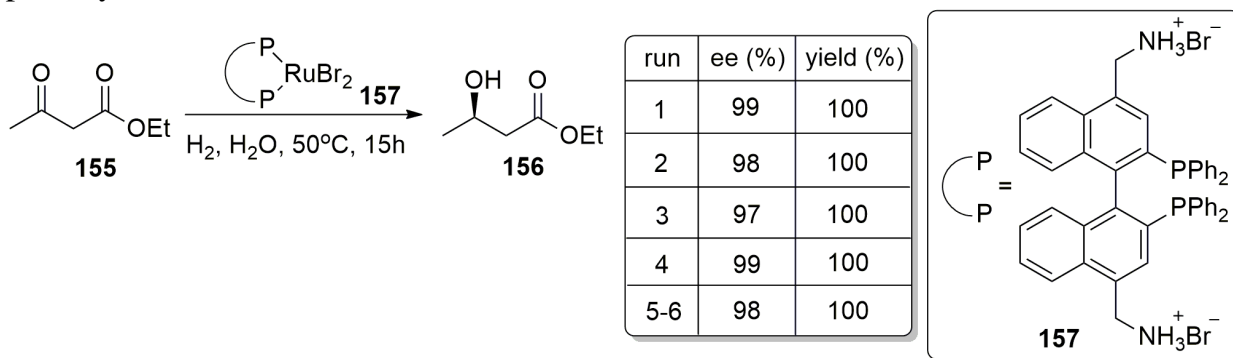
*Scheme 34. Pd-phosphinite complex-catalyzed Heck cross-coupling reaction in water.*

In organocatalysis, immobilization of the organocatalyst on a solid matrix to allow its recovery and reuse has been important. For instance, Font et al. [99] reported a Merrifield resin (chloromethylpolystyrene) supported 4-functionalized proline organocatalyst **154** synthesized *via* click chemistry for the aqueous asymmetric aldol condensation of cyclohexanone **121** with benzaldehyde **51** to deliver **152** (Scheme 35) [99]. This organocatalyst could be recovered and reused at least five-fold without apparent loss of selectivity and yield.



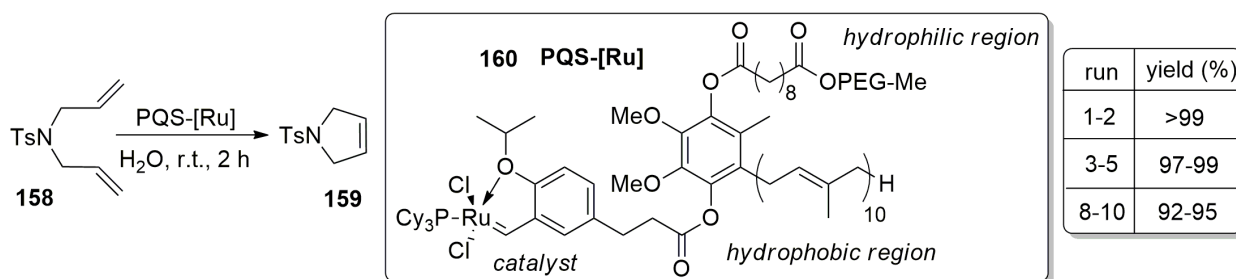
*Scheme 35. Merrifield resin supported proline organocatalyst for asymmetric aldol condensation in water.*

Berthod et al. [100] have reported the utility of ammonium moieties in the design of a H<sub>2</sub>O-soluble derivative of BINAP **157** for the ruthenium-organocatalyzed asymmetric reduction of ethyl 3-oxobutanoate **155** to (*R*)-ethyl 3-hydroxybutanoate **156** under aqueous conditions (Scheme 36) [100]. The organocatalyst **157** in aqueous medium was recycled up to eight-fold with ee always over 97% and with no substantial loss of potency.



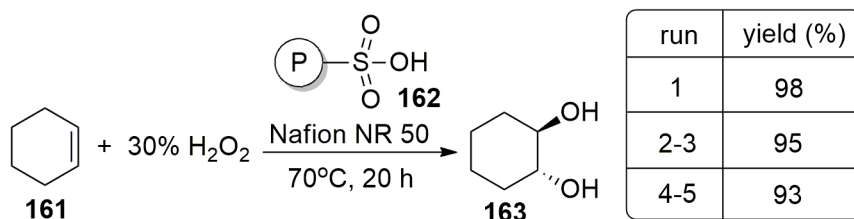
*Scheme 36. Reusable H<sub>2</sub>O soluble organocatalyst for the asymmetric reduction of  $\beta$ -ketoesters.*

Ghorai and Lipshutz [101] described the ring-closing metathesis (RCM) and the cross-metathesis (CM) of olefins using a unique, potent and promising catalytic system. In particular, they developed a novel ruthenium organocatalyst **160** with a PQS-attached Grubbs-Hoveyda-type complex (PQS = polyethyleneglycolubiquinolsebacate) comprising in the association of a covalently bound ruthenium carbene to catalyze the metathesis, a hydrophilic region for solubility in pure H<sub>2</sub>O and a hydrophobic region for the solubilization of the substrate. The species freely dissolved in H<sub>2</sub>O, creating nanomicelles in which RCM reactions with H<sub>2</sub>O-insoluble dienic compounds (for example **158**) can take place in pure H<sub>2</sub>O at room temperature. Extraction of the cyclic target compound **159** and subsequent introduction of fresh diene **158** in the aqueous phase permitted the organo-catalyst to be recycled nine-fold with still an appropriate catalytic capability (Scheme 37).



*Scheme 37. Metathesis of alkenes in water using a ruthenium organocatalyst.*

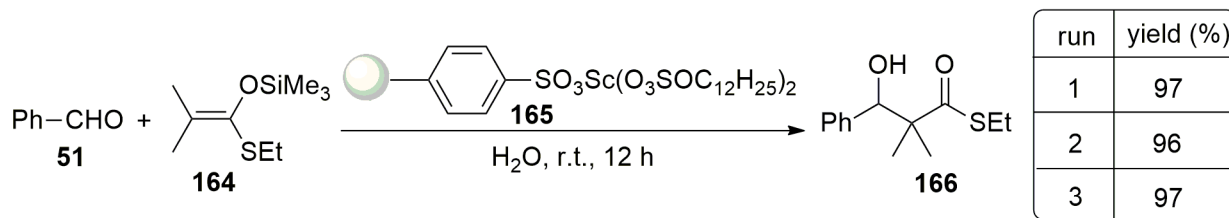
In the recent years, a new metal- and organic solvent-free catalytic system **162** for the functionalization of cyclohexene **161** to the *trans*-1,2-cyclohexanediol **163**, using 30% hydrogen peroxide (Scheme 38), has been reported by Usui et al. [102]. The catalytic system **162** is a resin-supported sulphonic acid, for instance, Nafion<sup>TM</sup>, Amberlyst-15 or the related silica-Nafion complexes, and could be regenerated by filtering the reaction mixture and reused five-fold without loss of efficacy.



*Scheme 38. Olefin dihydroxylation with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> over Nafion resin.*

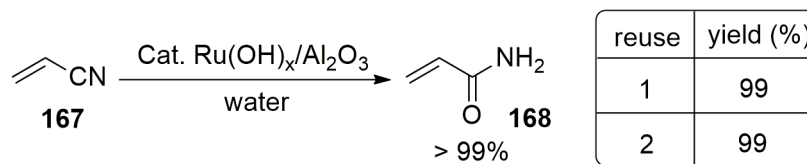
A resin-supported scandium-based catalytic system, synthesized from sulfonated polystyrene (PS) resin **165**, was observed to be a highly operative organocatalyst for Mukaiyama aldol addition of **51** in H<sub>2</sub>O [103]. The organo-catalyst was easily

regenerated by simply filtering the reaction mixture and recycled without any important loss of catalytic potency (Scheme 39).



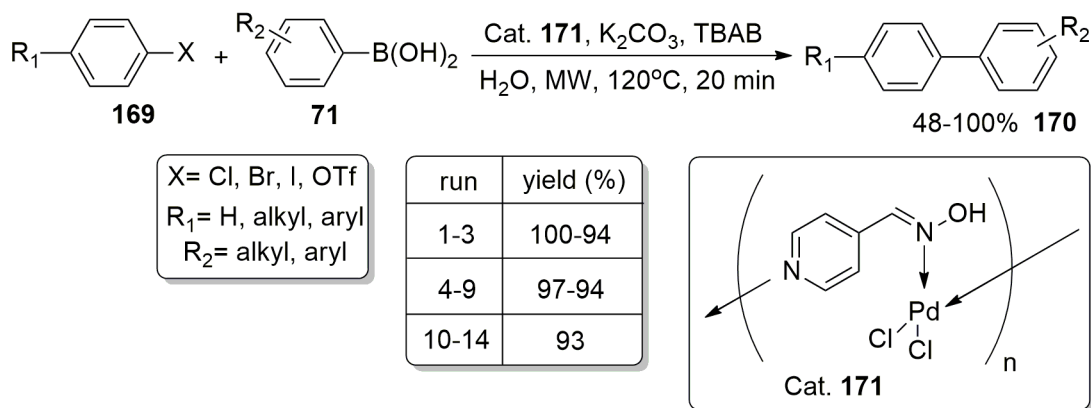
*Scheme 39. Mukaiyamaaldol reactions in  $H_2O$  using supported scandium catalytic system.*

The hydration of 2-propenenitrile **167** using  $Ru(OH)_x/Al_2O_3$  catalyst produced acrylic amide **168** (Scheme 40). No side reactions, like polymerization of 2-propenenitriles and hydration of carbon-carbon double bonds, occurred [104]. The  $Ru(OH)_x/Al_2O_3$  catalytic system was simply isolated by filtering the reaction mixture. After isolation of the catalytic system, it can be recycled at least twice with no significant loss of catalytic affinity.



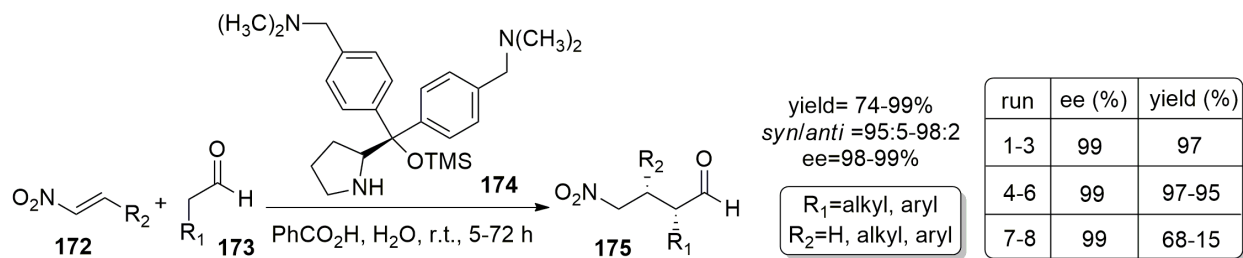
*Scheme 40. Ruthenium-catalyzed hydration of 2-propenenitrile to acrylic amide in  $H_2O$ .*

Apart from instances involving aqueous palladium-catalyzed Suzuki-Miyaura cross-couplings, there are increasing number of research papers describing the employment of immobilized, reusable Pd-catalytic systems under aqueous conditions. Solodenko et al. [105] used a heterogeneous palladium(II) precatalytic system **171** that is insoluble in organic solvents and  $H_2O$  [105]. In most cases, high yields (48-100%) were obtained for the cross-couplings of aromatic halides **169** and trifluoromethane sulfonate with a broad range of functionalized boronic acids **71** in the presence of TBAB, potassium carbonate and catalyst **171** at  $120^\circ C$  for 20 min (Scheme 41). Loaded into an IRORI Kan, the precatalytic system **171** could be regenerated and reemployed up to fourteen-fold without any substantial loss of catalytic potency.



*Scheme 41. Suzuki couplings with standard soluble palladium catalyst.*

A unique method for the organocatalytic asymmetric Michael reaction of aliphatic or aromatic aldehydes **173** with nitroalkenes **172** on H<sub>2</sub>O has been established by Zheng et al. [106]. The synthesis was performed in pure H<sub>2</sub>O at room temperature using low loading of catalyst **174** and the produced Michael products **175** were in high enantio- and diastereo-selectivities (Scheme 42) [106]. The catalytic system **174** can be reused for more than six-fold without a considerable loss of stereo chemical control and catalytic ability. Additionally, the synthetic technique is environmentally benign and practically simple.



*Scheme 42. Organocatalytic system for the Michael reaction in water.*

## Conclusion

This book chapter focuses on the potential of H<sub>2</sub>O as a reaction solvent. In the past decade, amazing consideration has been devoted to organic reactions in H<sub>2</sub>O and the research activities in this field are growing exponentially. Key advancements in the area have concentrated on resolving typical problems of organic reactions including low yields, long reaction times, insolubility of reagents/products and selectivity matters in non-classical solvents or in the absence of catalytic systems. H<sub>2</sub>O holds many capabilities for employment in organic processes as a solvent owing to its availability and low cost. However, the major purpose to pursue H<sub>2</sub>O as a solvent is its hydrophobic effect that

leads to such outstanding new chemistry not otherwise possible. Several examples highlighting the benefits of H<sub>2</sub>O as a solvent have been summarized in this book chapter, which hopefully will help researchers across the globe to create new, environmentally benign, clean and inexpensive approaches for organic synthesis in H<sub>2</sub>O.

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## Chapter 4

# Industrial Application of Ionic Liquids in the Paint Industry

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### Abstract

Paints, used to decorate or protect the substrate from external forces are composed of pigments, binders, and thinner. The paint industry uses various volatile organic solvents (VOCs) as one of the integral components of paints despite their detrimental effect on the environment. Among the tested strategies to develop environmentally benign alternatives to the VOCs, ionic liquids (ILs) have emerged as potential candidates. In this context, the main objective of this chapter is to introduce the new types of low viscous, highly efficient ILs that can be used in the paint industries. The strategy entails not only an exploration of the influence of the nature of the ILs but also to develop the much needed fundamental, molecular-level view of the heterogeneity of such systems.

### Keywords

Paints, Volatile Organic Compounds, Ionic Liquids, Varnish Removal, Paint Removal

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## **1. Introduction**

Scientific inventions have reached new heights in recent time, benefiting to the mankind in all aspects, though destructive in some cases. So, it is the role of science itself to find the possible solution to these destructive inventions that are detrimental to the universe and also to see that further development should not carry the same effects or cause even more damage [1-4]. In this context, ‘Environmentally-Benign’ inventions have emerged with possible alternative approaches [5-9].

Among the spectrum of inventions, paints that are applied to any object of interest either to protect it from the detrimental effect of the environment or to enhance the interior and exterior properties of the surfaces. The major components of paint include: pigments, binders, and thinner [10-12]. The role of the binder is to bind the pigments to the object of interest after evaporation of the thinner, once the paint is applied. Thinner are volatile organic compounds (VOCs) which evaporate from paints during drying and enter into the environment causing harmful effect to human beings. In the present chapter, we are reporting alternatives to these VOCs for the paint industry. The new age ‘Green’ alternative; recently rediscovered are neoteric solvents, Ionic Liquids (ILs). As per our knowledge, there are only a few reports pertaining to the use of ILs in the paint industry (SCOPUS search with Ionic Liquid and Paint search criteria on 30.12.2018, only seven articles). This chapter focuses on the future development of the ILs to be used in the paint industry in order to encourage academic and industrial researchers to design ‘environmentally benign’ solvents for the paint industries.

## **2. A short history of paints**

The first report on paint by Antediluvian date back on paints in caves found in Southern France (Font-de-Gaume, Niaux, Lascaux), Spain (Altamira), and South Africa [10,11]. The paints used over there were constituted of animal fats that were mixed with ocher, manganese and iron dioxide and chalk. The proof of paints was also found during various civilizations; during 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> millennium B.C. from an Egyptian mummy, Greek temples, and shields of warring European tribes. Rock paintings found in Sahara region of North Africa are of 5<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> millennium B.C. The first painted utensils were found from China in around 200 B.C. where milky juice from the *Rhusvernificifera*, the lacquer tree was used as the lacquer and minerals including gold were used to colour them,

though the oldest recipe for lacquer was found in 100 A.D. Paints were used as the preservatives or to decorate the objects in the periods of 600 to 400 B.C. by the Greeks and Romans, who introduced the varnishes with drying oils. The varnishes were composed of a mixture of resins and several vegetable and animal oils (fats) and showed poor stability with time [10-13].

With increased attention due to their lucrative nature, the demand for paints had increased many folds during the late eighteenth century, which led to the emergence of the paint business. The first paint mill was established by Bostonian Thomas Child in the US before 1700. The total spending has crossed \$10 billion annually on paints across the US only. As a major player of the chemical industry, paint technology is a multidisciplinary field as it utilizes the knowledge of chemistry, physics, and engineering through overlapping various fields including inks, plastics, adhesives, and rubber. Before World War I, nitrocellulose was used as the rapid-drying binder. After nitro-cellulose, phenolic resins and alkyd resins were the first synthetic binders used in the paints. Presently, numerous synthetic binders and resins are available but these are mostly based on petrochemical products [10, 11].

Vegetable oils, ethanol, and even water were used as the liquid components in the paints that did not allow the binder to dry quickly. This problem was solved at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century by the use of organic solvents that allowed faster drying with manageable properties of the paint. These organic solvents were an integral part of the paint industry since long but the environmental hazards, damaging nature to the eco-system and strict environmental regulations are now the major drawbacks that have to be dealt with cautiously.

### **3. Traditional solvents in the paint industry**

Solvents are an integral part of many chemical reactions and are useful for the preparations of countless chemical substances, as catalysis, in separation, extraction, in the electrochemistry etc. Further, solvents decide the chemical reaction rates as well as the end products of these chemical reactions which are dependent on various physicochemical properties of the solvents including polarity, density, viscosity (including shear stress and strain), dipole moment, refractive index and boiling point among others. Selection of solvent for any specific application (synthesis or chemical kinetics) is of utmost importance before preceding any chemical reaction [13-17].

As far as the paint industry is concerned, except water, low molecular weight hydrocarbons, chlorinated and oxygenated compounds (ethers, ketones, esters, alcohols) and nitro-paraffin are used to maintain the consistency of the paint by reducing the



viscosity. In most cases, a mixture of solvents is used instead of a single solvent depending on the viscosity, boiling point, evaporation rate, chemical nature, toxicity, solvency, cost and also the nature of the binder used along with other ingredients of the paint. Our research group is currently engaged in designing various thermo-physical properties of the mixture of solvents by judiciously selecting the mixture of two solvents, called binary mixtures [18-25]. Based on the application and curing conditions, the solvents of proper compositions for paints are selected, as the rate of evaporation depends on the composition of the solvent. The rate of solvent evaporation from the thin film of paint governs the propensity of the adherence of the paint and hence it is advisable to use mixed solvents. Evaporation of solvent causes a rapid increase in viscosity of the paint. This phenomenon takes place in two stages: initially, the vapour pressure of the solvent decides the evaporation of the solvent, this process is independent of the paint composition. After the primary removal of the solvent phase, the remaining solvent within the paint film is lost by a diffusion-controlled process, which is a relatively slow process [10-13].

Among the solvents, most organic solvents are volatile, toxic, and hazardous which have detrimental ecological effects on the environment and are considered harmful to humans and other ecosystems. The effect of solvent on human, animal, and plant organisms is concentration and exposure dependent. Some of the solvents cause acute damage to the body when exposed for a shorter time and minimal dosage. However, some of the solvents when absorbed by the humans in trace amounts cause chronic damage and sensitization. Further, the disposing of difficulties without affecting the environment and ecosystem are of major concerns. These detrimental effects are the root cause of several legislations, including the Montreal Protocol that suggests the minimum use of VOCs or even bans on several of these. Copenhagen climate summit was held in 2009 during a meeting in United Nations climate change conferences (UNCCC) to discuss the socio-economic impact of the climate change and to find a solution [26-30]. Yet strict regulations and policies are expected looking at the current status of the environmental damages and to save the ecosystems from the harmful effect of these VOCs emissions.

Working on the basic principle, “Prevention is Better Than Cure”, the search for a more sustainable and eco-friendly replacement of the VOCs is emerging as one of the most profound and vital technological challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Academic and industrial researchers are working on various probable strategies as alternatives to VOCs and have developed several environmentally-benign systems that cause minimum or even no harm to the ecosystem and are a step towards the ‘green approach’ as far as their impact on the global environment is concerned. Various alternatives to VOCs are water, supercritical fluids, and recently rediscovered ionic liquids (ILs) and deep eutectic solvents [31-33].

Among these, water could be the best in several cases but not all due to its inability to dissolve many organic solutes and to be miscible with several organic solvents [34, 35]. Aqueous mixtures that are contaminated with several toxic organic solutes are difficult and expensive to dispose of. The other alternative, supercritical fluids need high pressure and strict temperature conditions have limited solubilizing capacity for many solutes and are also not cost-effective, though are applied in various synthesis and extractions as well as catalytic reactions as a catalyst [36-40]. Carbon dioxide is the most widely used supercritical fluid at present due to its nontoxic and non-flammable nature as well as low cost and high solvating power for many nonpolar organic compounds. But still, the tunability of the properties is not achieved through supercritical carbon dioxide [36-40]. Out of these alternatives, recently rediscovered ‘green solvent’ ionic liquids, defined as organic salts with a melting point below 100°C; and made up of ions only are attracting the attention of the scientific world. Unlike the molecular solvents, ILs form a different class of solvent system comprising of crystalline state made entirely of ions in a liquid state. Among the bunch of unique properties, negligible vapour pressure and tunable nature are in favour of making them the best alternative to VOCs [41-57]. Their unique properties make them one of the best candidates for several industrial applications including paint and pharmaceutical industries and several others [42-44]. We had investigated the application of ILs in various fields such as surface active agents, coacervates, drug delivery vehicles, ionogels to name a few [58-68]. Among the spectrum of applications, herein we aim to discuss the application of ILs in the paint industry. As 30.12.2018 (SCOPUS), only seven reports are available on the use of ionic liquid in the paint industry. The results indicate the space available for researchers to explore this developing field [69-75].

#### **4. Alternatives to the traditional solvents, ionic liquid (IL)**

The traditional convention says, “salt with a melting point below 100°C is ‘ionic liquid’ (IL).” The ionic liquids’ (ILs) are also known as low-temperature molten salts, room temperature molten salts, ionic fluids, liquid organic salts, fused salts and neoteric solvents [42-44]. ILs are the combinations of organic cations and/or organic or inorganic anions, which decide the properties of ILs based on their shape, size, and geometry. The difference in the symmetry of the constituting cations and anions lower the lattice energy and hence the melting point of the ILs. For the inorganic salts, e.g. NaCl, the identical size of the cations and anions leads to the closer packing, higher lattice energy and as a result higher melting point [44].

Historically, “red oil,” a liquid salt phase that was separated during the Friedel-Crafts reaction and determined recently by NMR spectroscopy is considered the first IL as per

the current definition [76, 77]. The first mention of IL was found in 1914 when Paul Walden published his famous seminal paper “*Über die Moleculargröße und elektrische Leitfähigkeit einiger geschmolzener Salze*”, where the electrical properties of ethylammonium nitrate with a melting point of 13–14 °C were discussed [44]. The first generation room temperature IL, chloroaluminate was synthesized by Osteryoung and Wilkes in the 1970s [41]. Seddon et al. [77] have used ILs as the solvents in the 1980s, where they have used alkylpyridiniumtetrahalidoaluminate,  $[Rpy][AlCl_3X]$ , to study transition metal complexes. The first report on IL as the solvent media was by Chauvin et. al. and Wilkes et. al. who used ILs as the solvent media for homogeneous transition metal catalysis [78-85]. The hygroscopic nature of these haloaluminates based ILs and their high reactivity with water, unfortunately, limits their utility. Among the arbitrarily selected generations of ILs, the first generation ILs were hygroscopic and air-sensitive which include aluminium trichloride based and haloaluminates based ILs. These first generation ILs have limited industrial applications. The issue was solved by the introduction of comparatively air- and moisture-stable ILs. The second generation ILs were air- and water-stable and have common anions like halides,  $[PF_6]^-$ ,  $[BF_4]^-$  and  $[CF_3CO_2]^-$  and were first reported by Wilkes and Zaworotko [80]. The properties of the second generation ILs were adjusted through changing the structural entity of the cations and anions. For example, imidazolium-based ILs with shorter chain length were used as solvents, reagents, catalysts, and materials and were most investigated in various industrial applications [83-86].

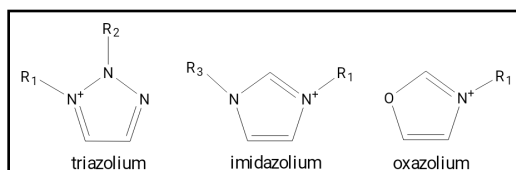
During the last two decades, ILs with highly asymmetric structured organic cations and bulky inorganic anions exhibiting low lattice energy have constituted an important class of alternatives to the VOCs. The most popular ILs belonging to this class are tetra-alkylammonium and phosphonium salts, tri-alkylimidazolium salts, di-alkylpyridinium and pyrrolidinium salts [84]. Except for some scattered studies, the breakthrough research on ILs may be credited to the Seddon's group from QUILL. Their group had used chloro-aluminate ILs for the exploration of transition metal complexes, for various electrochemical, spectroscopic and other complex chemical investigations [85-88]. ILs have been voted as best Scientific Innovation to impact the most in the 21<sup>st</sup> century and have the ability to set the basic rules of chemistry forever [87].

ILs can be designed according to their applications through judicious selection of the cations and anions, which make them interesting materials for many different applications. The inter as well as intra-molecular interactions, such as hydrogen bonding, van der Waals, cation- $\pi$  and  $\pi - \pi$  interactions could be adjusted by changing the constituting ions. Such novel properties make them bright alternative materials in chemical synthesis, homogeneous catalysis, batteries, and surfactants sciences to name a

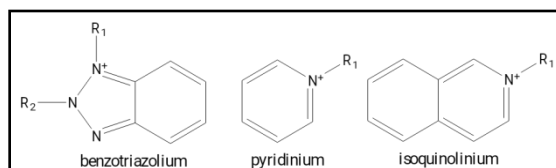
few [88]. Various cations and anions studied in the literature have been outlined hereafter.

#### 4.1 Cations for the ILs

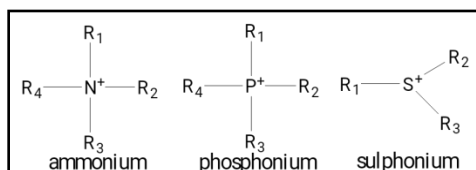
The cationic centers most often used in the preparation of ILs involve a positively charged nitrogen or phosphorus containing organic structure with lower symmetry and are: (a) five-membered heterocyclic cations e.g. imidazolium, oxazolium, and triazolium, (b) six-membered and benzo-fused heterocyclic cations e.g. pyridinium, benzotriazolium, and isoquinolinium, (c) ammonium, phosphonium and sulphonium based and recently studied (d) functionalized (mostly within the alkyl chain) as well as chiral cations. Various structures of the above-mentioned cations are illustrated in Scheme 1.



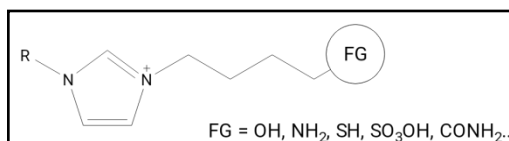
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

**Scheme 1:** Representation of (a) five-membered, (b) six-membered, benzo-fused, (c) ammonium, phosphonium, sulphonium and (d) functionalized imidazolium-based cations.

The properties of the ILs that are influenced by the nature of cations include melting point, toxicity, viscosity, and miscibility with other solvents [41-44]. For example, the toxicity of the 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([EMIM][Cl]) increases just by increasing the alkyl chain length from ethyl to butyl, i.e. 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([BMIM][Cl]) is more toxic.

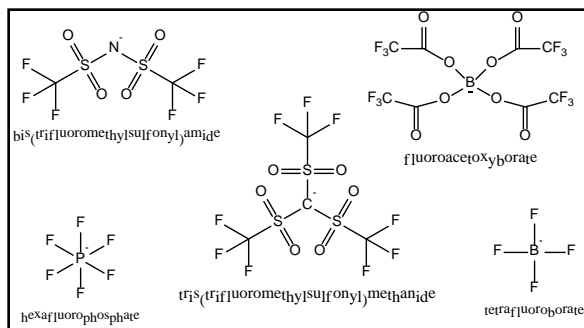
## 4.2 Anions for the ILs

The anions used as the constituting component of ILs are weakly basic inorganic or organic compounds with diffuse or protected negative charge. These are basically of two types: (a) fluorous anions such as hexafluorophosphate, bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)amide, tris(trifluoromethanesulfonyl) methanide, tetrafluoroborate, fluoroacetoxyborate and (b) non-fluorous anions such as tetrachloroaluminate, nitrate, halides, organic salts, and bis(oxalato)borate. The structures of anions are shown in Scheme 2 [41-44, 89].

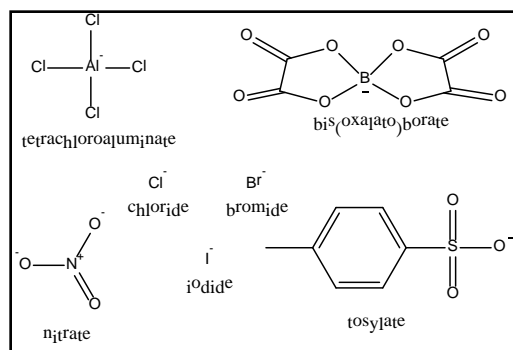
The properties of ILs that are influenced the most are hydrophobicity, viscosity, density and solvation through changing the anions. e.g. 1-n-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate ([Bmim][PF<sub>6</sub>]) is immiscible with water, whereas IL with the same cation and BF<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> anion is water soluble [89].

There are about 10<sup>18</sup> ILs available theoretically, mostly unexplored yet. The physicochemical properties of ILs could be modulated by merely changing the constituting cations and/or anions. The key physicochemical properties include density, viscosity, vapour pressure, solvation, melting point, surface tension, heat capacity, and thermal conductivity among others. Among all these properties, the negligible vapor pressure is most important as far as the environmental protection concern from the VOCs. The paint industry uses VOCs to effectively clean the varnishes and also the paint despite their deteriorated properties for the environment. The most common features of the ILs to be used in the paint industry include low volatility, adequate viscosity, and proper tunability. Low volatility protects the environment from the harmful effect of the VOCs. If highly viscous ILs are to be used in place of the low viscous VOCs, they will not get penetrated into the object onto which the paint is applied and could not interact with the object to influence its originality. The tunable nature of IL could help in designing the IL in such way that it could be miscible with water or even with lesser toxic solvents that may reduce the harmful effect of the organic solvents. Further, the binary and ternary mixtures of ILs with molecular organic solvents or VOCs could be helpful in designing the thermo-physical properties of these industrially relevant solvents. The altered thermo-physical properties of pure ILs could be advantageous in removing of the ILs in the paint industry. In the present chapter, we aim to focus on these properties of ILs as a

perspective to use these neoteric solvents in the paint industry, i.e. tenability, viscosity, and negligible vapour pressure.



(a)



(b)

**Scheme 2** Representation of (a) non-fluorous anions and (b) fluoruous anions.

## 5. Ionic liquids in the paint industry

Recently Sarwono et al. [71] investigated the role of ILs in removing the alkyd paint and demonstrated the difference between the ILs and VOCs through comparison. They have used five imidazolium-based ILs with 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium as cation and dicyanamide [DCA], bis (trifluoromethanesulfonyl) imide [NTf<sub>2</sub>], hydrogen sulphate [HSO<sub>4</sub>], acetate [OAc] and chloride [Cl] as the anions. They have also compared the results obtained with three organic solvents (toluene, acetonitrile, and ethanol). Alkyd paint is usually applied onto wood, metal, plastic, composite, and other substrates to coat them. Due to various obvious reasons, it is necessary to remove the coating from the substrates. The wooden sticks used in the study were coated with alkyd paints through a dip-coating method to get coating thickness of 85±16.5µm that was measured by Digital Micrometer (Digmatic Mitatyo). The paint removal was then conducted through

immersing the painted wooden sticks in the representative five ILs and three organic solvents. The sticks were periodically tested for the removal of paints through measuring the percentage uptake of the ILs or solvents and by capturing the microscopic images. Due to higher viscosity and bulky anion (for NTf<sub>2</sub>), except [Bmim][DCA], no other IL gave satisfactory results. [Bmim][DCA] was able to remove complete alkyd paint within three days with the aid of a dry swab. In comparison to other investigated ILs, [Bmim][DCA] due to its low viscosity promoted the swelling most and was the most effective in removal of paint. Through ab initio methods, Hunt et al. [90] had studied the ion pairs in 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium (Bmim) cation based ILs. As per the study, IL with chloride anion formed strongly connected and structured network to make its viscosity higher than the rest of the anions studied, i.e. BF<sub>4</sub> and NTf<sub>2</sub>. [Bmim][NTf<sub>2</sub>] which formed a weak network making the viscosity much lower than the chloride anion containing IL. Despite its low viscosity, the bulky anion size of [Bmim][NTf<sub>2</sub>] hindered its penetration into the alkyd coating film as well as its removal efficiency. Furthermore, due to higher unsaturation in its structure, IL with [DCA] anion interacted more (additional  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interaction in addition to electrostatic interaction) strongly with the alkyd paint to promote the removal of the paint.

The intermolecular interactions within ILs govern the viscosity as it describes the internal friction within the ILs. The solvation of paints depends on the viscosity of the ILs and so to be a good candidate for the paint industry, viscosity must be low. The low viscosity ILs are used as the solvent as they increase the mass transfer rates and improve the solvation whereas higher viscosity ILs may be used as a lubricant or in separation processes as a membrane. The viscosity of ILs varies widely based on the type of constituting cations and anions and it is relatively higher as compared to the common organic solvents [41-44].

As far as the cations is concerned, imidazolium-based ILs exhibit the lowest viscosity than the pyridinium and pyrrolidinium based ILs [41-44]. For the NTf<sub>2</sub> anion, the viscosity of the [Cnmim][NTf<sub>2</sub>] ILs is slightly lower than those of [Cnmpy][NTf<sub>2</sub>]. Within the same cation series, increasing the alkyl chain length, viscosity increases; e.g. from going ethyl to octyl in the [Cnmim][PF<sub>6</sub>] ILs, where n = 2,4-8, the viscosity increases from 172.3 to 677.4 cP at controlled the temperature of 298.15 K, the increase is monotonous. Talking of anions, the viscosity of the ILs depends on the anion symmetry i.e. highly symmetric or spherically shaped anions have higher viscosity whereas viscosity decreases with increasing the asymmetry. Viscosity of the ILs increases in the order of [NTf<sub>2</sub>] < [OTf] < [BF<sub>4</sub>] < [C<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>] < [C<sub>1</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>] < [PF<sub>6</sub>] < [CH<sub>3</sub>COO] < Cl. Viscosity of the ILs could be tailored through mixing them with organic solvents. An unlimited number of combinations that arise through the binary and ternary

mixtures of ILs with molecular solvents could be selected in such a way that the mixture could have better removal efficiency for the paint than the individual component of the mixture. To be a good solvent for the paint industry, ILs with a short alkyl chain, imidazolium-based cations, and asymmetric anion with a higher tendency to interact with pain or varnishes such as DCA could be used.

The performance of hydrofluorinated ether (HFE) 7100 for the vapor degreasing operations at Air Logistics Centers (ALCs) matched with that of 2-ethylhexyl lactate (2EHL), the lactate based degradable IL [91]. Molybdenum disulfide grease with 50 mg of free soil coated 4130 steel and 2024-T3 aluminum (Al) panels were taken as the test samples to check the cleaning ability of the 2EHL along with 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium (EMIM) acetate and EMIM ethyl sulfate. Among the three selected ILs, 2EHL and EMIM acetate demonstrated better cleaning ability than the EMIM ethyl sulfate. Authors didn't comment on the reason for the difference in cleaning ability of the selected ILs. Several other ILs such as 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium (EMIM) acetate, EMIM methane sulfonate, EMIM ethylsulfate, and triethylsulfoniumbis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide were also found to be good cleaning agents [91].

ILs were recently used to remove varnishes from paintings. The study was conducted by Pacheco et al. [92] who selected the ILs keeping in view their miscibility with water or solvents with lower toxicity, polarity, and the nature of the paint layers and varnishes used. Among the studied 12 ILs with different polarities, [Bmim][DCA] was the most effective in removing the varnishes (both, the natural and synthetic). Other ILs used in the study had selective removal efficiency for the natural and synthetic varnishes.

## Conclusion

Present chapter deals with the role of ionic liquids as the alternative media to be used in the paint industry. Paint composed of the pigments, binders and thinner utilizes various volatile organic compounds as one of the important components. These VOCs have a damaging effect on the eco-system and need to be replaced. Ionic liquids could be the best alternative due to their unique physicochemical properties. The chapter describes the potential use of ILs in the paint industry. Readers could get the insights into designing new low viscous ILs with negligible vapour pressure.

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## Chapter 5

# An Overview of Green Solvents in Sustainable Organic Synthesis

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### Abstract

The developing awareness with the demanding requirement for greener, more sustainable innovations has concentrated on the utilization of molecule proficient reactant techniques used for new synthetic compounds and drugs. The use of alternative reaction agents for green, sustainable organic synthesis is reviewed in this chapter. "The best solvent is no solvent" however, on the off chance that a solvent is required at that point water is a considerable solvent to suggest and catalysis in aqueous biphasic systems. To overcome the acceptable disadvantages of regular natural solvents (harmfulness, non-biodegradability, combustibility, and gathering in the climate), significant emphasis has been given to the substitution of conventional organic solvents by green solvents. In this essence, the safe, non-toxic, bio sustainable and low-cost reaction solvent is a significant objective in natural synthesis. Research concerning green solvents is centered on diminishing natural harms with the utilization of green solvents in natural science. Thus, there have been considerable developments of solvent-free procedures and in addition more effective reuse of conventions in the most recent decades. However, these methodologies have their barriers. Therefore, the emphasis has been on developing reactions utilizing water, ionic liquids, natural carbonates, supercritical carbon dioxide, and in addition bio-solvents rather than regular natural solvents. Along these lines, this special topic on "An overview of green solvents in sustainable organic synthesis" has been expected to exhibit various sub-zones of organic synthesis in green solvents.

### Keywords

Bio-Based Solvents, Water, Ionic Liquids, Sustainable Organic Synthesis



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## 1. Introduction

Sustainable development is defined as the development that enables the present generation in meeting their needs [1]. Green chemistry or sustainable technology deals with chemical working processes which utilize raw materials, eliminate waste and avoid the use of toxic solvents and reagents. New synthetic developments in organic processes can increase the chemo- and regioselective, functional group tolerance and reaction yields in industries or academics.

Moreover, high product selectivity must be achieved, which in turn limits the amount of solvents, reagents, and promoters [2-4]. From the green chemistry principles, chemical reactions should reduce waste, and reuse materials to increase sustainability. Due to that, the reactions have been, atom-economical [3], catalytic [4], safe for both humans and the environment, and designed with energy efficiency.

In general, there are three approaches for mitigating the discharge of solvent and contaminated water into the environment. First one involves solvent recycling or reduction. Numerous enterprises made exceptional development in executing “closed-loop systems” that decreased the usage of water or solvent thereby enhancing their recycling capability. Secondly, changing to procedures which are free from solvents could be a favorable step towards a “greener environment”. Finally, organic solvents and other unstable natural volatile organic compounds were removed.

Solvents have both commercial and domestic uses. Solvents are used in the chemical industries as a media in the production of chemicals and also for chemical purification/separation. Here, we try to show how suitable selection of solvents for chemical handling has been utilized to enhance the supportability of these procedures utilizing patterns. These procedures were collected for helpful purposes and are not extensive collected works of all the presented examples in the literature. Solvents are involved in the day to day life in various processes like industrial emissions (60%) and all other volatile organic compounds (30%) [5]. Most of the reactions cannot be carried out under solventless conditions, so this will lead to our third approach, the green approach, which reduces the release of the solvents into the ecosystem. Even though most of the commonly used solvents can cause serious health and environmental issues, they have also proven to be beneficial for temperature control of the solution regarding boiling point, heat supply for exo- and endothermic reactions, filtration, extraction, recrystallization, azeotropic refining, chromatography, alteration of reaction rates, and selectivity of the reaction [6]. New solvent alternatives have attracted attention in the past few years and they have started to slowly replace the conventional ones. Water, fluorous solvents, ionic fluids, natural carbonates, carbon dioxide and also bio solvents are included in this category. These various types of solvents, with their advantages and disadvantages, complement one another than competing with each other.

## 2. Green solvents

There are a number of solvents that have been recognized as green solvents as shown in Fig .1 and listed below.

1. Water [7-14]
2. Supercritical fluids [15-22]
3. Gas-expanded liquids [23]
4. Ionic liquids [24-30]
5. Liquid polymers [31-37]
6. Solvents derived from the biomass [38-47]

Table 1 presents different types of solvents for their cautions use in organic reactions.



*Figure.1 Classification of green solvents*

*Table 1. Various types of the solvents*

<b>RECOMMENDED</b>	water ethanol 2-propanol 1-butanol ethyl acetate 2-propyl acetate 1,1-dimethylethyl acetate anisole sulfolane
<b>RECOMMENDED PROBLEMATIC HIGHLY RECOMMENDED OR PROBLEMATIC</b>	methanol tert-butyl alcohol benzyl alcohol ethylene glycol acetone butanone 4-methyl-2- pentanone cyclohexanone methyl acetate acetic acid acetic anhydride
<b>PROBLEMATIC</b>	2-methyltetrahydrofuran heptane methylcyclohexane toluene xylenes chlorobenzene acetonitrile 1,3-dimethyltetrahydropyrimidin- 2(1H)-one dimethyl sulfoxide
<b>PROBLEMATIC HIGHLY RECOMMENDED Or PROBLEMATIC PROBLEMATIC OR HAZARDOUS</b>	2-methoxy-2- methylpropane tetrahydrofuran cyclohexane dichloromethane formic acid pyridine
<b>HAZARDOUS</b>	diisopropylether 1,4-dioxane dimethyl ether pentane hexane dimethylformamide N,N-dimethylacetamide 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidone methoxy ethanol triethanolamine
<b>HIGHLY RECOMMENDED OR PROBLEMATIC PROBLEMATIC OR HAZARDOUS HAZARDOUSHAZARDOUS</b>	diethylether benzene chloroform carbon tetrachloride dichloroethane nitromethane

## 2.1 Water

Water is the universal solvent for all organic reactions. It possessed attracting properties as the reaction medium in a supercritical state, compared to the standard conditions. Water has important physicochemical properties as denoted in Table 2. Supercritical water has the density that continuously changes from high to low (liquid state to gas state) phase transition by varying the temperature and pressure. Supercritical water performs as a non-polar in behavior it's having pressure as 221 bar and the temperature above 374 °C. Water is very cheap, non-toxic in nature and non-flammable also. Generally, it is high polar in nature, so especially utilized for the extraction as a high polar solvent. However, it is not advisable to use water as a solvent in the synthetic organic chemistry reactions in which the removal of solvent and drying out the final products may be very difficult. The drawback of water is that it cannot be used for the non-polar and less polar constituents.

*Table 2 Physico-chemical properties of the water*

PROPERTY	VALUE
BOLING POINT	100 °C
MELTING POINT	0 °C
CRITICAL TEMPERATURE	374.2 °C
MOLAR HEAT OF VAPORIZATION	40.67 KJ
MOLAR HEAT OF FUSION	6.02 KJ
MOLAR ENTROPY OF VAPORIZATION	109 Jdeg <sup>-1</sup>
VISCOSITY	1.005 centipoise
SURFACE TENSION	73 dyens cm <sup>-1</sup>
DIELECTRIC CONSTANT	80.54
DIPOLE MOMENT	1.84 debye
SPECIFIC HEAT	1 Cal g <sup>-1</sup> C <sup>-1</sup>
HEAT OF EVAPORATION	540 Cal g <sup>-1</sup>

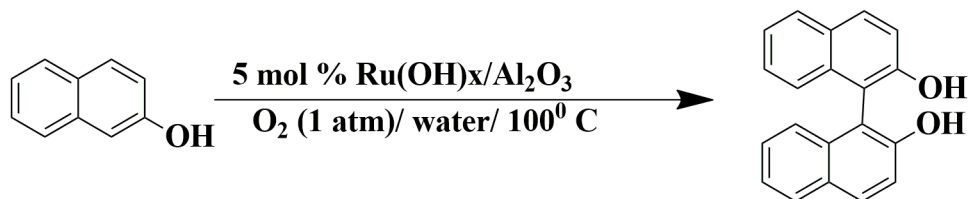
Nowadays water-mediated organic reactions are one of the challenges for modern organic chemistry. There are various water-mediated reactions as classified below:

- i. Oxidations
- ii. Dehydrogenation
- iii. Allylations
- iv. Coupling reactions
- v. Heck reaction
- vi. Wittig reaction

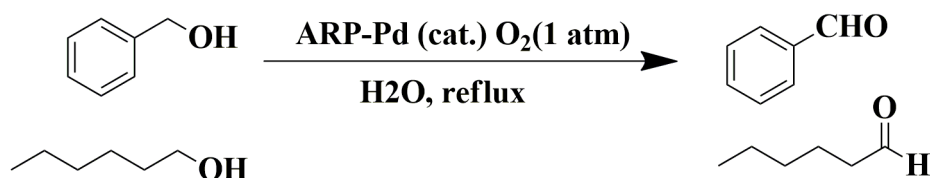
- vii. Mannich-type reactions
- viii. Diels-Alder Reaction

### 2.1.1 Oxidations

Oxidation reactions have been mainly conducted by utilizing various amounts of heavy metals or moisture-sensitive oxidants. Examples include  $V_2O_5$ , potassium permanganate, and *N, N'*-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) etc. Nowadays water-compatible oxidants (e.g.  $O_2$ ,  $H_2O_2$ ) are used for oxidation reactions. These oxidants are cost-effective, clean, safe, and acts efficiently. The oxidation of  $\beta$ - naphthol in the presence of ruthenium produces corresponding biaryl compounds in water (Scheme 1) [48]. Oxidation of alcohols in water has been achieved *via* molecular  $O_2$  using palladium nanoparticles as a catalyst. The  $1^\circ$  and  $2^\circ$  alcohols have produced corresponding ketones in water as a solvent (Scheme 2) [49].

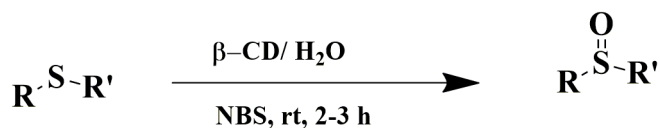


*Scheme 1 Oxidation of the  $\beta$ - naphthol*



*Scheme 2 Oxidation of Alcohols*

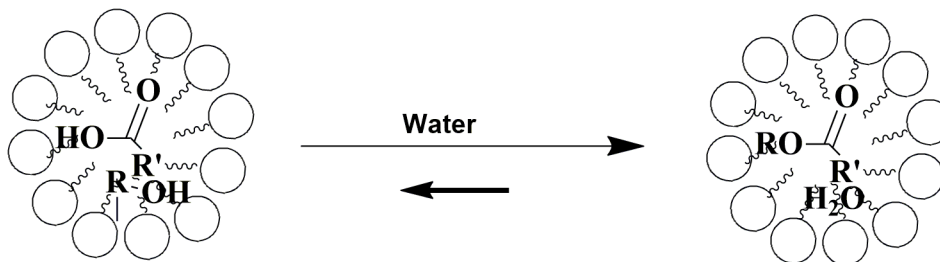
Selectivity is also carried out in water medium in which the sulphides were converted into sulfoxides *via*  $\beta$ - cyclodextrin and *N*-bromosuccinimide. It is a novel methodology for getting higher yields (Scheme 3) [50].



*Scheme 3 Oxidation of sulphides*

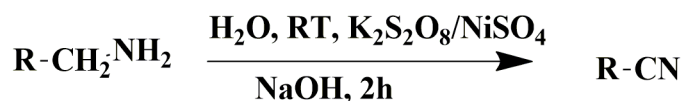
### 2.1.2 Dehydrogenation

Dehydrogenation is one of the most important processes in synthetic chemistry. It is also known as removal of hydrogen from an organic molecule. Water is one of the sources to remove hydration from the reactant molecules. But it is a very difficult process because the reaction molecules should be detached to shift the equilibrium to the side of the dehydrated product as shown in the scheme 4.



*Scheme 4 Dehydrogenation of acid*

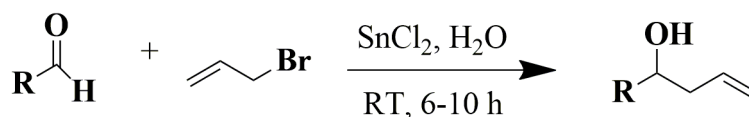
The primary amines also undergo dehydration to convert as a nitrile group using  $K_2S_2O_8$  as an oxidant and  $NiSO_4$  as a catalyst. Here  $K_2S_2O_8$  act as a cost-effective and stable oxidant in scheme 5 [50].



*Scheme 5 Dehydration of amines*

### 2.1.3 Allylations

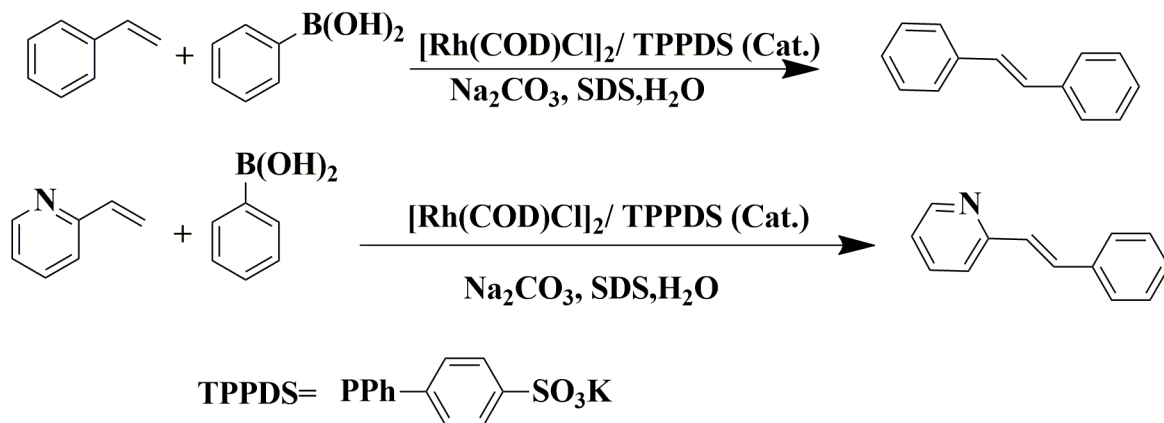
Alkylation process has been done using water as a solvent in a recyclable electrochemical process. Here tin chloride was used as a catalyst for the allylation of aldehydes (Scheme 6) [51].



*Scheme 6 Allylation of aldehydes*

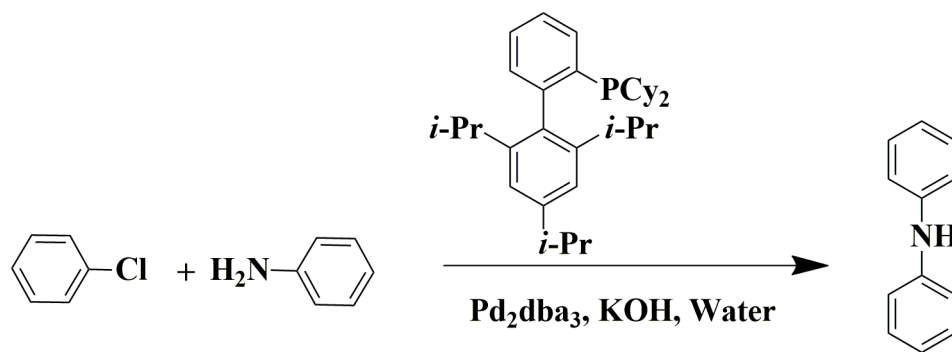
### 2.1.4 Coupling reactions

For the past ten years, coupling reactions were being performed using transition metal catalysts in water as a medium. Because of this, water molecules acted as a ligand in the metal complexes in their-ordination sites. As shown in scheme 7, the unactivated styrenyl olefins and aryl boronic acids reacted in the presence of water soluble phosphine as a ligand giving the addition hydrolysis products [52] is explained.



*Scheme 7 Coupling reaction of aryl boronic acids and activated olefins*

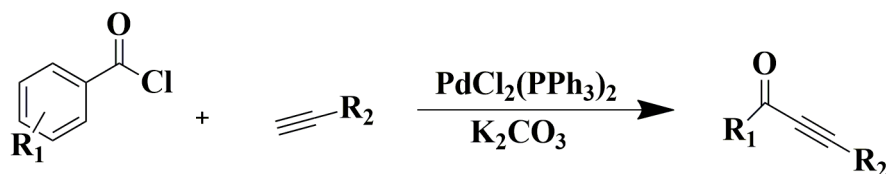
Water has also been used as a solvent for the C-N bond formation using palladium as a catalyst. Here phosphine ligand combined with palladium catalyst. When amines react with aryl chlorides in water, they form amination products [53] (Scheme 8).



*Scheme 8 C-N bond formation of aryl chlorides*



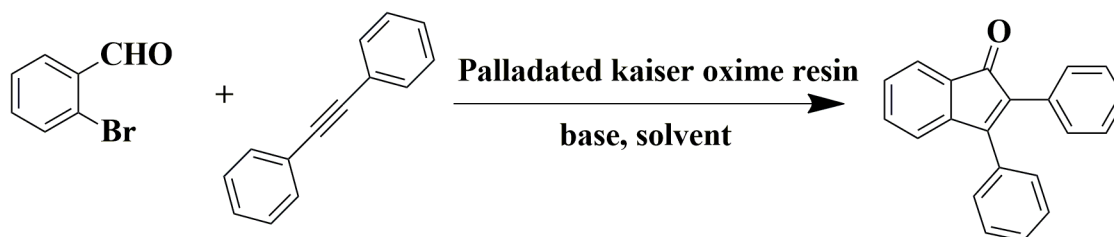
Also, a new system in palladium and copper have used as a catalyst for coupling reactions in water medium from acyl halides and alkynes. From this reaction product, an excellent yield of ynones were obtained (Scheme 9) [54].



*Scheme 9 Coupling reaction of acyl halides and alkynes*

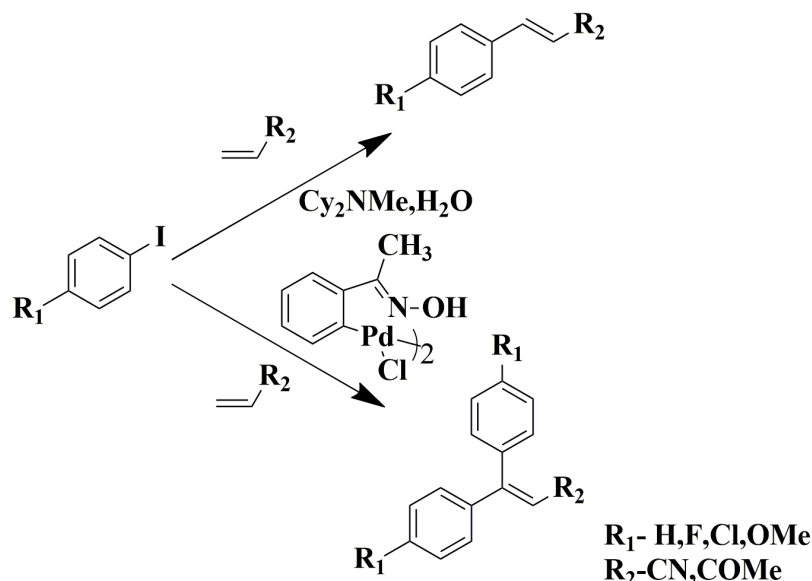
### 2.1.5 Heck reaction

One of the most important palladium-catalyzed reactions is known as Mizoroki-Heck reaction [55] where palladated Kaiser oxime resin was used as a catalyst. 2-Bromo benzaldehyde reacted with 1,2-diphenylacetylene *via* coupling reaction in which  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  was used as a base and water as a solvent. The intermolecular Mizoroki-Heck reaction was carried out using the annulation reaction between 2-bromo benzaldehyde and 1,2-diphenylacetylene (Scheme 10).



*Scheme 10 Annulation reaction of 2-bromo benzaldehyde and 1,2-diphenylacetylene*

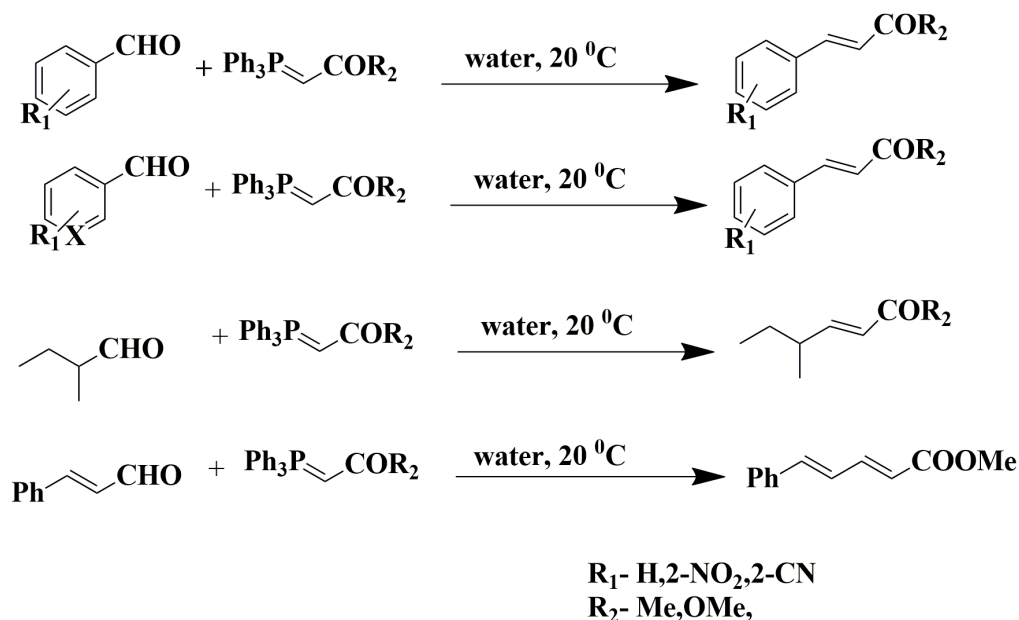
$\alpha,\beta$ - Unsaturated carbonyl compounds reacted with aryl iodides in the presence of oxime derived carbapallada cycle catalyst, and water as a solvent to get regioselective diarylation product in fine yields. Here  $\text{Cy}_2\text{NMe}$  was utilized as a base (Scheme 11) [56].



*Scheme 11 Heck reactions of aryl iodides*

### 2.1.6 Wittig reaction

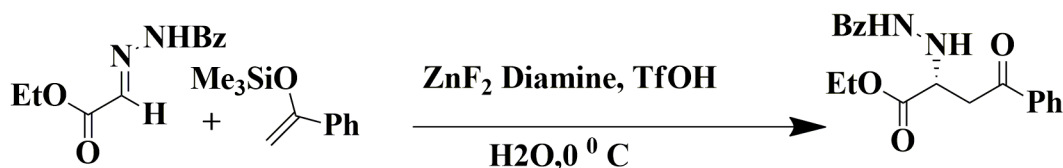
The Wittig reaction is one of the important chemical processes for the C-C bond formation in organic chemistry. In non-polar solvents, the reaction rate of this type of reactions is very slow. Water was also utilized as a solvent for the water-soluble phosphonium salts in Wittig reaction. Here Wittig reactions were carried out for aldehydes using water as a medium. The product yield was good when compared to other organic solvents (Scheme 12) [57].



*Scheme 12 Wittig reaction of aldehydes*

### 2.1.7 Mannich-type reactions

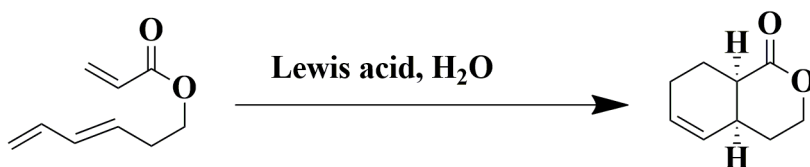
Mannich type reactions give a useful synthetic pathway for nitrogen-containing reactions. Recently most of the organic reactions were carried out in an aqueous medium. But to achieve this type of reactions in water is too difficult. In the following reaction, hydrazono ester reacts with silicon enolates in water as a solvent. Use of water resulted in higher enantioselectivity. The new catalytic combination utilized  $\text{ZnF}_2$  and TfOH (Scheme 13) [58].



*Scheme 13 Reaction of hydrazono ester and silicon enolates*

### 2.1.8 Intramolecular Diels-Alder reaction

The intramolecular Diels-Alder reaction was carried out using indium (III) triflate as a catalyst, water as a solvent and alkenes as reactants in scheme 14 [59]. Diels-Alder reaction is an important reaction in synthetic organic chemistry. Further, this type of reactions was carried out *via* only organic solvents. But water has also been used as eco-friendly solvent, for highly stereoselective reactions.



*Scheme 14 Diels-Alder reaction of indium (III) triflate*

## 2.2 Supercritical fluids

If the fluid temperature and pressure are above its critical point, it is called a supercritical fluid. The properties of the supercritical fluids in the liquid and gaseous state are highlighted in Table 3

Most of the solvents including pentane, ethylene, dimethyl ether butane, and nitrous-oxide, etc. have been investigated for the supercritical properties. Most of the solvents including pentane, ethylene, dimethyl ether butane, and nitrous-oxide, etc., have been

investigated for the supercritical properties [59-61]. Super liquid fluids commonly used are:

- a. Carbon dioxide
- b. Water

*Table 3 The properties of the supercritical fluids in liquid and gaseous state*

State of solvent	Density ( $\text{gcm}^{-3}$ )	Diffusivity ( $\text{cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ )	Viscosity ( $\text{gcm s}^{-1}$ )
Gas	$10^{-3}$	$10^{-1}$	$10^{-4}$
Liquid	1	$5.10^{-6}$	$10^{-2}$
Supercritical fluid	0.3	$10^{-3}$	$10^{-4}$

## 2.2.1 Carbon dioxide

$\text{CO}_2$  has been used as one of the common solvents in the supercritical state.  $\text{CO}_2$  mediated reactions have been faster compared to the normal conventional organic solvent-mediated reactions. It is very simple and linear molecule and utilized for the alteration of the toxic freons. Supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  showing fine solvent properties has been also utilized for the extraction of some hydrocarbons, also  $\text{CO}_2$  has been used to dissolve some of the polar compounds like ketones, esters, and aldehydes.

Its good solvent power were characterized in following postulates.

### 2.2.1.1 Applications of supercritical $\text{CO}_2$

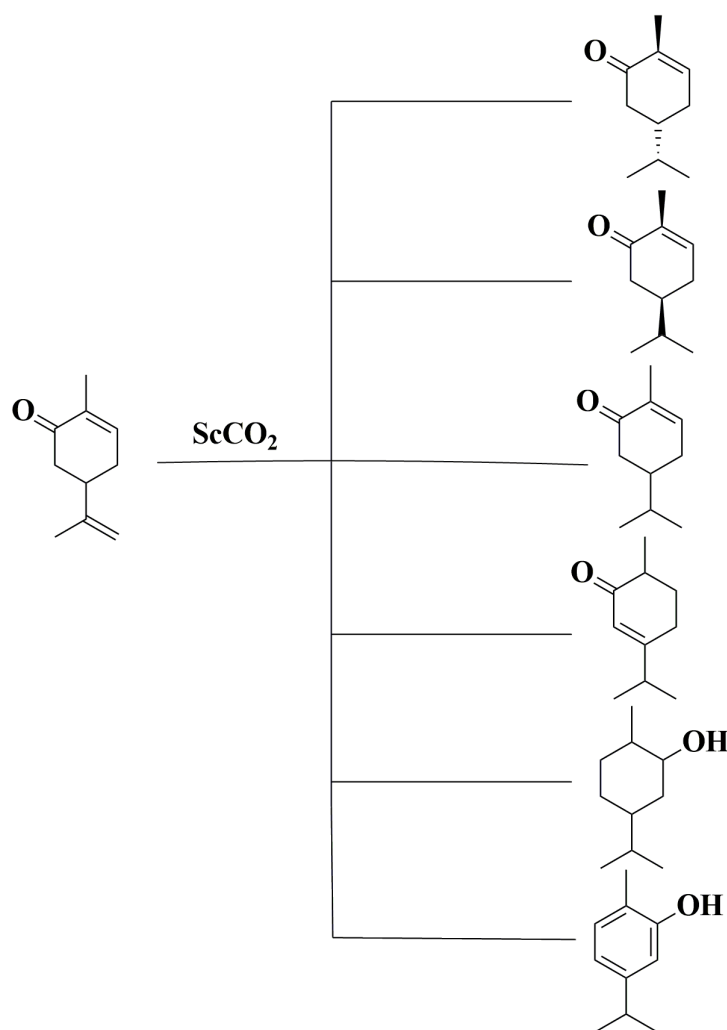
Significant uses of the  $\text{CO}_2$  have been documented in various review articles [62-75] and here categorized as follows:

- Utilized for the food industry in the various process like coffee, herbs, and spices, flavors, antioxidants, and seed oils etc.
- Very useful in the nutraceuticals and pharmaceuticals industries for the synthesis of drugs. Examples are carotenoids, lycopene, astaxanthin, and sterols etc.
- Used for numerous chemical reactions, such as polymerization, hydrogenation, destruction of toxic organics, enzymatic reactions etc.
- It also has a lot of applications in material processing methods. Examples include microencapsulation, coating, dyeing, crystallization, aerogels, particle formation, and impregnation.
- One of its most important applications has been in the cleaning process which includes (dry cleaning, soil reclamation, removal of undesired substances)

- It finds application in cosmetics preparation as it has active ingredients for cosmeceutical applications and in fragrances
- Most specific applications in various fields include membrane-based separation in biochemistry, microwave-induced supercritical fluid extraction, sterilization, preparative supercritical fluid extraction, thin film extraction etc.,

### 2.2.1.2 Chemical reactions of CO<sub>2</sub>

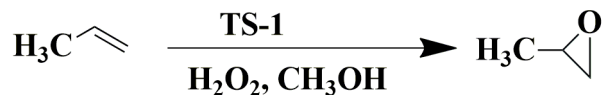
The hydrogenation process of carvone in the presence of ScCO<sub>2</sub> under mild condition shows good and higher yield as shown in scheme 15 [76].



*Scheme 15 Hydrogenation process of carvone*

Further, the significance of ScCO<sub>2</sub> is in epoxidation of the propylene converted into propylene oxide. Here propylene dissolves in supercritical carbon dioxide, which also

increases the catalytic activity and increases the amount of the product as in scheme 16 [77].



*Scheme 16 Epoxidation of propylene*

## 2.3 Ionic liquids

ILqs (Ionic liquids) are also called as molten salts, in lower vapor pressure. Also, many of them have low instability, increased thermal stability, solvating characteristics and are electrically conductive [78]. Subsequently, there is an expanding enthusiasm for interchanging volatile natural solvents with ionic liquids. They fill in as solvents or reaction media for some isolation or synergist forms, as there exist an extensive variety of natural, inorganic and polymeric atoms which are well dissolvable in ionic liquids [79]. Ionic liquids have solvation property depending upon the nature of the anions and cations present in the organic compounds. Some of the example for anions and cations are formate, benzoate, phosphate, methanesulfonate, thiocyanate, and imidazolium, ammonium, phosphonium, pyridinium pyrrolidinium respectively.

### 2.3.1 General properties and nature of ILqs

ILqs have low electrical conductivity, non-ionizing ability, and low vapor pressure etc. Its other properties include,

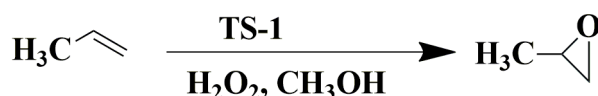
- Low combustibility
- Temperature stability
- Catalytic property
- Viscosity
- Polarity
- Molar conductivity
- Vapor pressure

### 2.3.2 Application of ILqs

ILqs are used in electrochemistry as they are, electrochemically inert over a wide potential range. They are also utilized in various fields such as chemistry, biotechnology, analytics, process technology and pharmaceutical fields, etc.

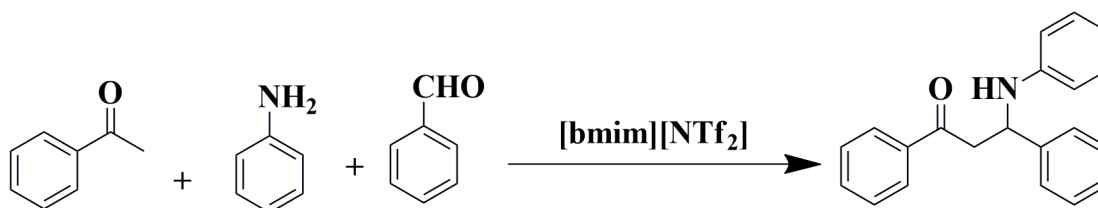
### 2.3.3 Ionic liquids in organic synthesis

Despite the fact that the ionic liquids don't comply fully with green science principles, they are extremely capable as options in contrast to organic solvents. In the scientific literature, there are countless research papers for the utilization of ionic liquids in synthetic routes and various applications. They are also useful for the condensation reactions, for an example for the condensation of indoles with benzaldehyde under microwave conditions with 1-benzyl-3-methylimidazolium hydrogen sulfate ([bnmim][HSO<sub>4</sub>]) as a catalyst [80] Scheme 17.



*Scheme 17 Condensation of indoles*

ILqs have been also utilized for the Friedel Craft acylations reaction, halomethylated of β-enaminones, aldol reaction, Knoevenagel reaction, Michael reaction, Biginelli and Hantzsch reaction or the Doebner modification of the Knoevenagel reaction, Mannich reaction is shown in Scheme 18.



*Scheme 18 Mannich reaction of Ionic liquid as a catalyst*

### Conclusion

During recent years, solvents from green and renewable sources have been found to be the most promising as current solvent innovation. From the above discussion of the various green solvents like water, ionic liquids, and supercritical solvents, it is found that they all gave the same good results compared to conventional solvents. Main contents of this chapter deal with green solvents and their various applications in synthetic chemistry.

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## Chapter 6

# Application of Supercritical Carbon Dioxide in the Leather Industry

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### Abstract

In numerous processes and synthesis, supercritical carbon oxide can be used as a nontoxic and green solvent. This chapter described the supercritical carbon dioxide and its application in the leather industry to develop an eco-friendly technology. Supercritical carbon dioxide has several unique properties and has great potential for advanced processing of materials. Supercritical carbon dioxide as a potential solvent for leather processing hopes to reduce environmental burden by avoiding the parallel pollutions by leather processing.

### Keywords

Supercritical Carbon Dioxide, Solvent, Extraction, Leather Industries, Toxicity

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## 1. Introduction

Leather production is common worldwide as leather industries are the key players in the economy of developing nations. These industries are also considered to be a major source of environmental pollution caused by their potentially toxic and hazardous liquid waste, which creates a negative image of leather technologies in society.

Hides and skins of buffaloes, bovines, pigs, and goats are generally used as primal matter in leather industries for leather production [1]. Nowadays, the global challenge for scientists and engineers is to use their skills and creativity to design, develop, and implement procedures that allow environmental and economic sustainability [2-3]. Green processes are environment-friendly processes in which the chemical activities-including chemical design, manufacture, use, and disposal are such that hazardous substances will not be used and generated [4]. With increasing emphasis placed on environmental responsibility, there is a clear need for reactions and processes that can eliminate or significantly reduce harmful residues such as used organic solvents, salt streams, and dangerous organic or inorganic by-products.

Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> with its moderate critical constants, nonflammable nature, and low cost provides an attractive alternative for replacing organic solvents that were traditionally used in chemical manufacturing processes which were the main cause of pollution in leather processing. Minimizing liquid waste generation, easy separation of solutes and fast reaction rates are some of the advantages of the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> technology over conventional solvent extraction methods.

License et al. [5] in 2003 published a research paper on the chemical reaction in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> from the laboratory to the commercial plant. In this research paper, the development of supercritical carbon dioxide application from the laboratory to plant scale was highlighted and presented a progress report about an ongoing green chemistry initiative.

In 2014, Deng et al. [1] reviewed the developments of CO<sub>2</sub> deliming for leather manufacture. In this chapter, the authors analyzed carbon dioxide properties including solubility in water, deliming activity, and mass transfer. Conclusively, this chapter provided an overview of fundamentals, process optimization, occupational safety, deliming in leather. Hu and Deng [6] in 2015 published a review on the application of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> for leather processing. This review described the properties of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> and applications of it for industries associated with the technology of leather production. In this review, the economic position of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> technology for leather production on the industrial level was evaluated on the basis of published research work.

## **1.1 What is supercritical carbon dioxide?**

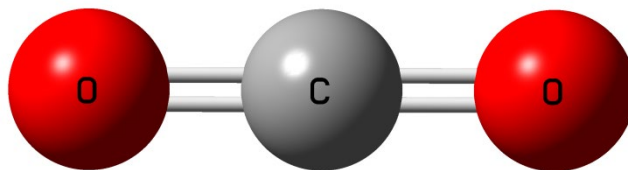
In a CO<sub>2</sub> molecule, two oxygen atoms are covalently bonded to a single carbon atom with double bonds. The structure of the molecule is linear and has zero electrical dipole. CO<sub>2</sub> molecule observed with asymmetric stretching at 1243 cm<sup>-1</sup> in the Raman spectrum. Optimized structure of CO<sub>2</sub> using Gauss View and Raman spectrum of optimized geometry of CO<sub>2</sub> obtained from Gaussian 09 [7] have been shown in Fig.1 and Fig.2 successively. The critical temperature and critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> are 30.95 °C and 72.8 atm successively, to obtain supercritical state [8]. The pressure-temperature phase of supercritical fluid of a pure component is shown in Fig.3.

Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> works extremely well as processing media for an extensive variety of chemical and biological extraction processes. Supercritical carbon dioxide has a significant ability to precise control over components of a complex matrix to be extracted [9]. This fruitful ability of supercritical carbon dioxide can be achieved by controlling various parameters like pressure, temperature, processing time and flow rates [10].

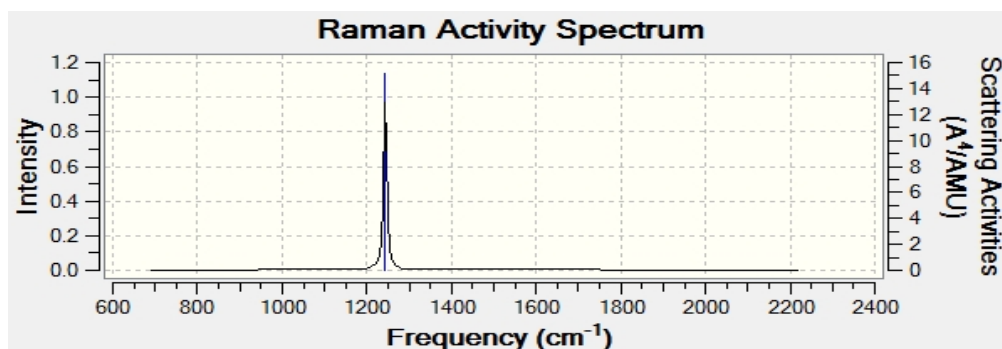


Diffusivity of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is higher than liquid so the extraction rates are generally much higher than the corresponding extraction by other systems of solid and liquid [11].

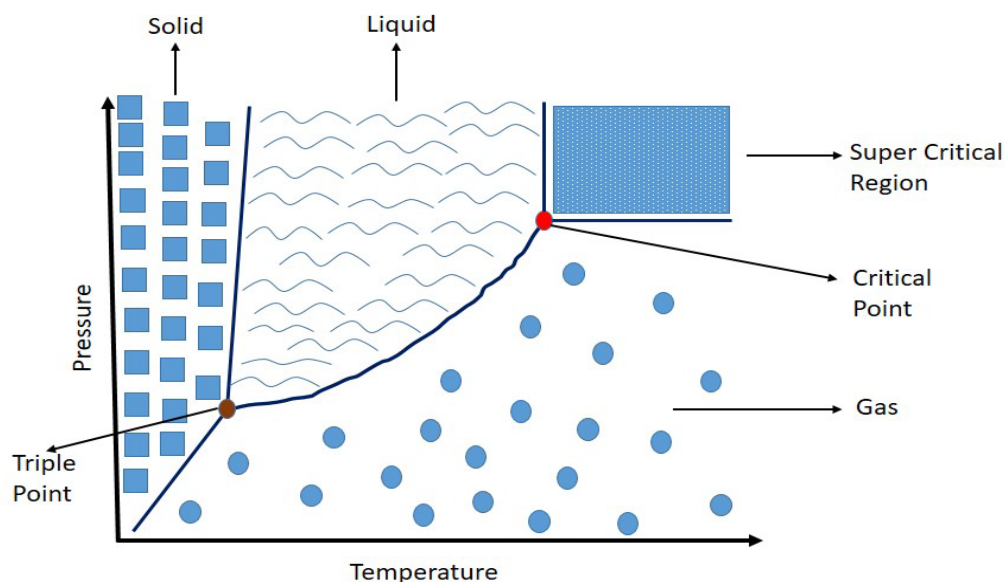
So, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has several advantages as a solvent, including, lower pressure drops, better mass-transfer, and ease of solvent recovery. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has unique physical properties which can be exploited to control chemical reactivity.



*Fig. 1 Optimized Structure of CO<sub>2</sub>*



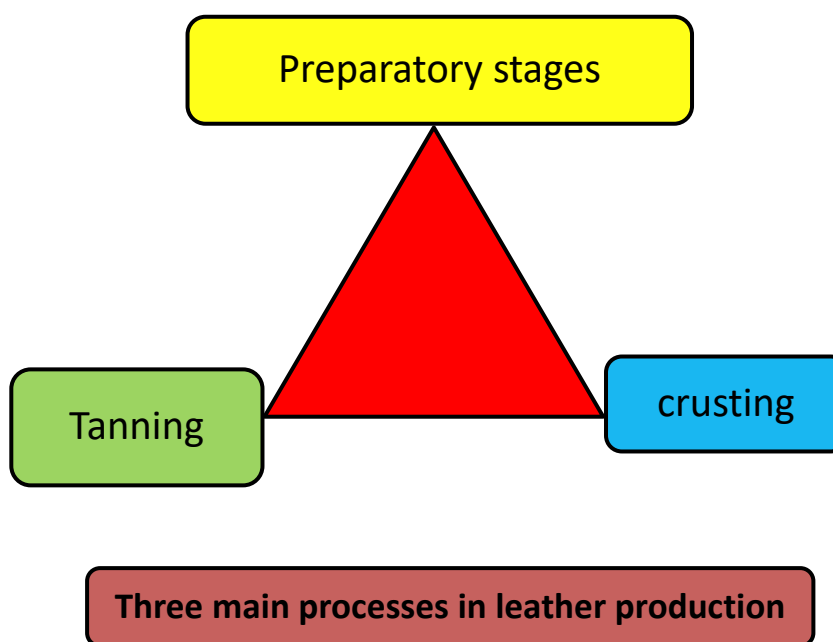
*Fig. 2 Raman spectrum of the optimized geometry of CO<sub>2</sub>*



*Fig. 3 Pressure-Temperature phase diagram of supercritical carbon dioxide*

## 1.2 Leather processing

Leather processing can be understood under three main processes: preparative, tanning and crusting stages. An additional sub-process, the surface coating could also be added into the sequence. The list of operations that animal skins endure varying with the sort of leather. Fig.4 presents the main leather processes.



*Fig. 4 Diagram for the leather processes*

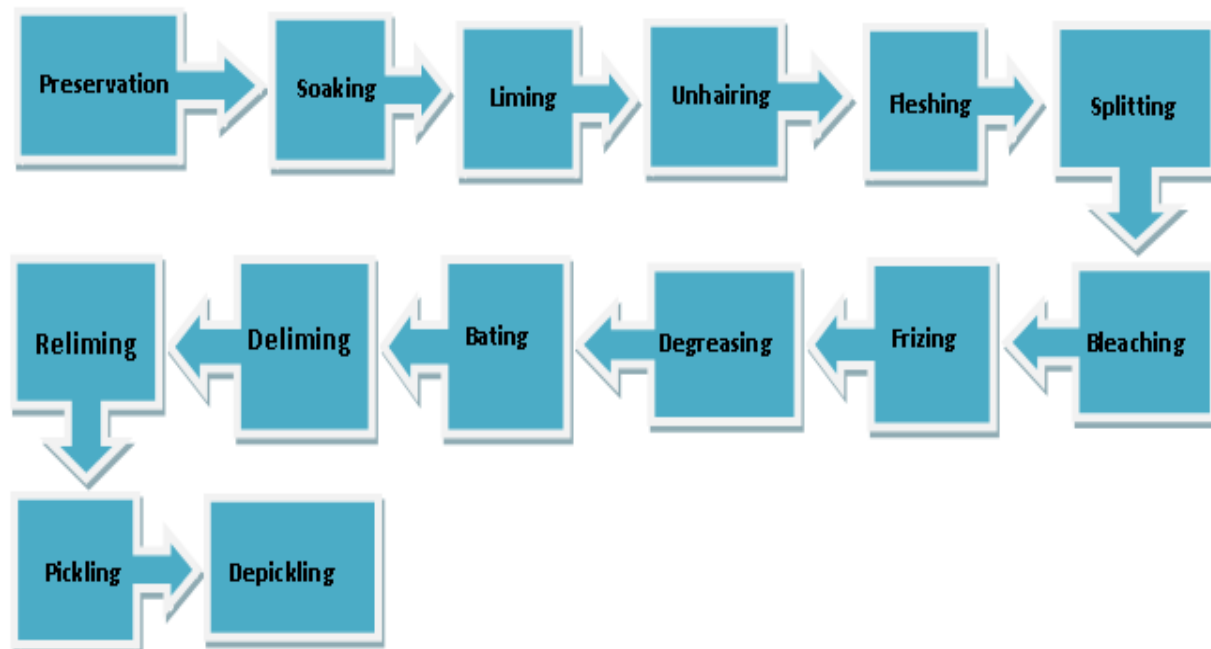
### 1.2.1 Stages for preparation

The stages of preparation start when the skin is ready for tanning [12]. During the stages of preparation, several of the unwanted raw skin elements are removed. Several choices for pretreatment of the skin exist. Not all of the choices could also be performed. Stages of preparation might embody preservation, soaking, liming, unhairing, fleshing, splitting, reliming, deliming, bating, degreasing, freezing, bleaching, pickling, unpickling [13]. Stages for preparation of leather involved in preparatory stages are shown in Fig.5.

### 1.2.2 Tanning

Tanning is the method that converts the macromolecule of the primal skin into a constant material which cannot decompose and is appropriate for a good sort of finish applications. The principal distinction between raw skins and tanned skins is that raw skins dry resolute type a tough inflexible material which will decompose once re-wetted,

whereas tanned material dries resolute a versatile type that doesn't become rotten once wetted back. An oversized variety of various tanning ways and materials are often used; the selection is ultimately obsessed with the top application of the animal skin. The generally used tanning material is Cr, that leaves the animal skin when the product is tanned once it has a pale blue color and the product is generally called "wet blue" product.



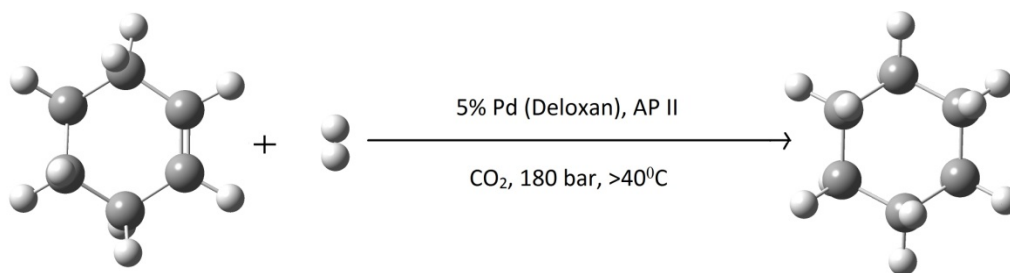
*Fig. 5 Flow diagram of preparatory stages of leather production*

### 1.2.3 Crusting

Crusting is a very important process of leather production. Crusting is the process to make the skin thinned, retanned and lubricated. The fate of the crusting sub-process is the drying and softening operations of skin.

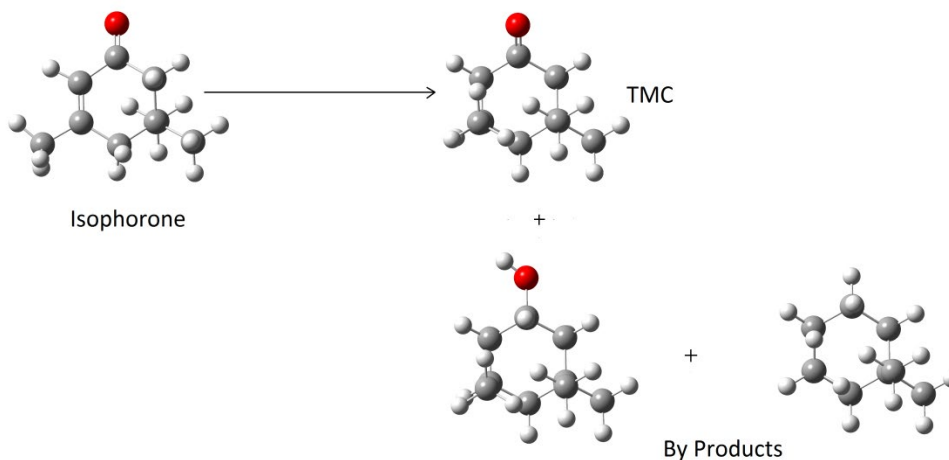
## 2. The journey of CO<sub>2</sub> to supercritical carbon dioxide

In 2002, initial, multi-reaction, supercritical flow reactor was made as a fruitful collaboration between the Clean Technology Group at the University of Nottingham and the fine chemicals manufacturer, Thomas Swan & Co. Ltd. In November 1995, a project was started in that project first reaction involved the hydrogenation of cyclohexene in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (Plan 1).



*Plan 1 Hydrogenation of cyclohexene under supercritical conditions.*

In Nottingham, a detailed investigation was performed on chemical process of acetophenone which showed that supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> allowed the reaction conditions to be optimized terribly effectively to maximize the yield of specific chemical process merchandise (Plan 2) [14-16].

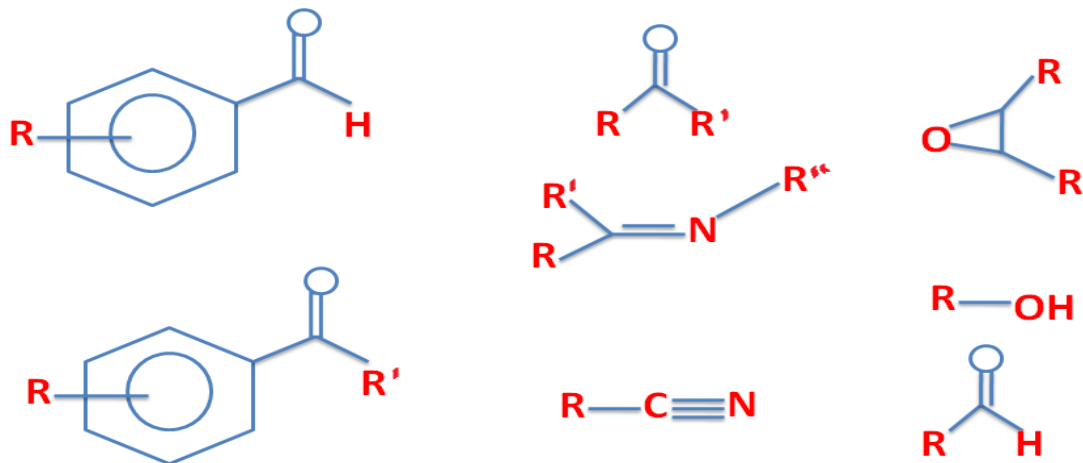


*Plan 2 Different products obtained during the hydrogenation of acetophenone.*

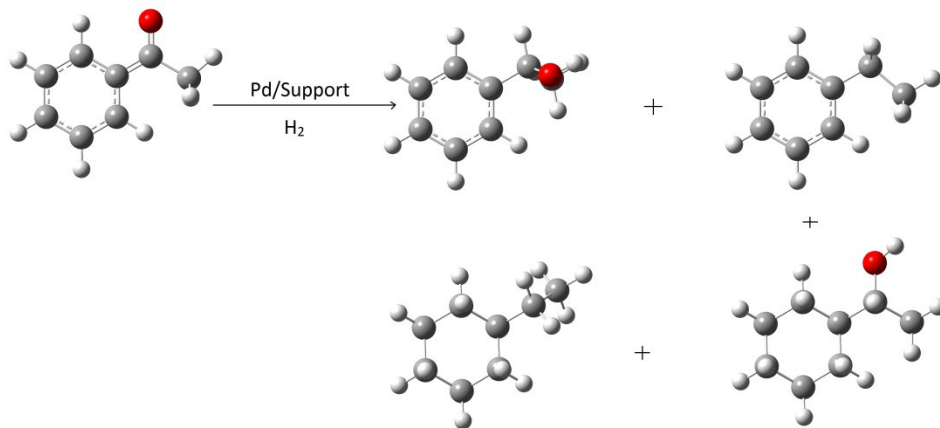
Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, as a solvent is found different from conventional solvents because of its most effective dependency of density on pressure and it is easily compoundable with H<sub>2</sub> [17]. Licence et al. proposed that, despite the weird options of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> as a solvent, the general property of a given catalyst wasn't essentially modified compared to its behavior in typical solvents however rather that conditions may optimize a lot of effects in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> [5,18-19] (Plan 3).

It was important to identify a model compound, which could be used by the two laboratories, Nottingham and Thomas Swan & Co., as the basis for developing a viable supercritical fluid process. Further, the hydrogenation reaction of isophorone to trimethyl cyclohexanone (TMCH) was chosen for potential commercial interest where the ease of optimization in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> could be exploited [14] (Plan 4).

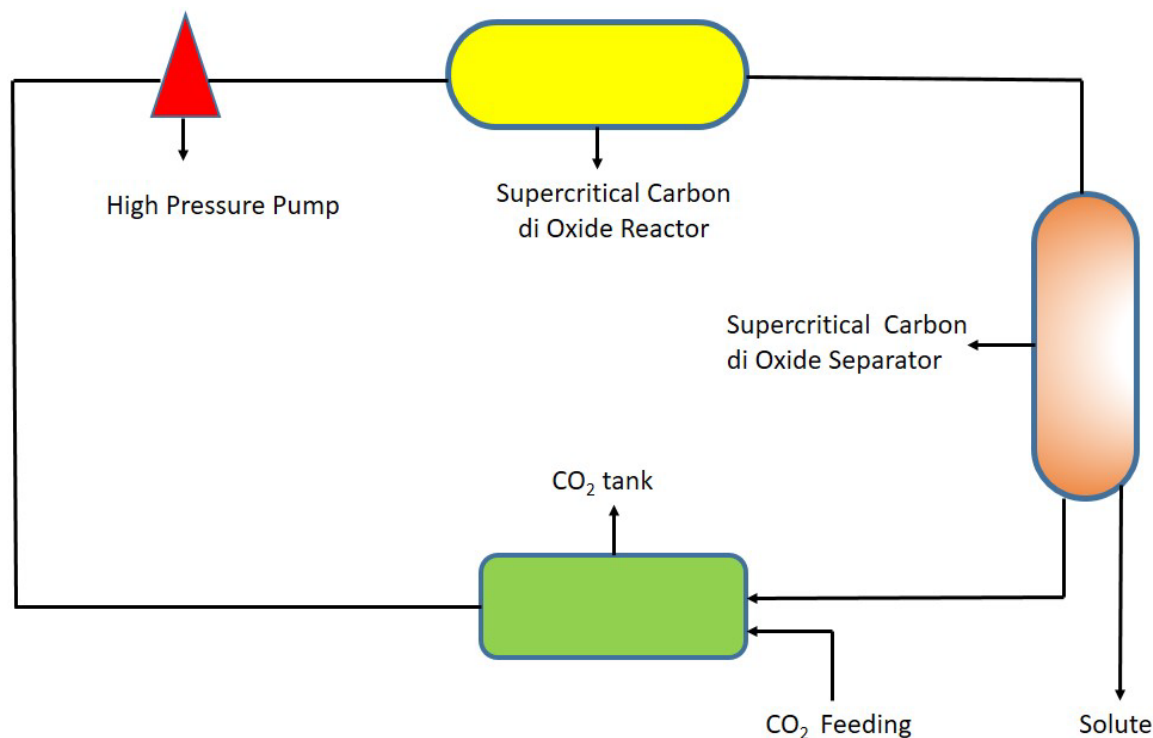
Above reaction transferred to the Thomas Swan & Co. laboratory where the industrial environment was better suited to investigating the feasibility of scale-up to a production scale. The general procedure of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> extraction is shown in Fig.6.



*Plan 3 Some important functionalities acquired from the successfully hydrogenated under supercritical conditions [Licence et al]*



*Plan 4 Different products obtained in the hydrogenation of isophorone.*



**Fig. 6** Pictorial diagram for supercritical carbon dioxide extraction.

## 2.1 Environmental challenges of leather production

The leather industry is one of the most polluting industries. Conventional leather tanning technology produces a large amount of organic and chemical pollutants. The leather processing is responsible for unfavorable impact on the environment. The pollutants, which are mostly contained in the effluents discharged by tanneries, are a serious threat to the environment. The tannery effluent, if not treated properly, can cause a serious threat to soil and water bodies. The global production of leather is about 24bn m<sup>2</sup> that presents a substantial challenge to the leather industry.

In the leather industry, solid waste includes animal hairs, keratin wastes, buffing dust, animal skin trims, and flesh wastes. These wastes contain protein and if this protein is not utilized well than it can cause serious pollution problems to the environment. Tanneries produce harmful gases, dust and a large amount of solid waste like chrome throughout chromate reduction and from the buffing procedure, ammonia during deliming and unhairing, sulfides during liming.

### **2.1.1 Ammonium Nitrogen (NH<sub>3</sub>-N)**

Ammonium chemical element (NH<sub>3</sub>-N) is the major waste material of animal skin [19]. In 2011 Wang et al. [20] conjointly reported that seventy-eight percent NH<sub>3</sub>-N of the entire emission comes from a typical ammonia salt deliming procedure. Professionally, long contact with ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) may cause hepatic encephalopathy [21] and methemoglobinemia diseases [22]. Free ammonia is an additional active substrate providing nutrient for plant bacterium in surface water and buffering anaerobic digestion system can cause serious diseases [23]. Various researchers suggested that prevention from NH<sub>3</sub>-N can be an improved key for greener manufacture of leather.

### **2.1.2 Chromium (Cr)**

Compounds of chromium are the increasing environmental burden and serious concern of environmental pollution. Most typical ways in which to get rid of ionic Cr from the waste waters are the chemical precipitation and surface adsorption on different materials. Various researchers and scientists have reported the successful methodologies for Cr compound removal from tannery wastewater [24-26].

## **3. Applications of supercritical carbon dioxide**

Supercritical carbon dioxide is turning into a very important business because of its role in chemical extraction additionally to its low toxicity and environmental impact. The comparatively coldness of the method conjointly the stability of carbon dioxide also permits most compounds to be extracted with very little injury or denaturing. Due to the unique properties of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, it has various applications in different fields. Applications of supercritical carbon dioxide in the field of pharmaceuticals and in the leather industry are discussed below.

### **3.1 Supercritical carbon dioxide in the pharmaceutical industry**

In the pharmaceutical industry, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has been used extensively due to its extraordinary properties like low and easily accessible critical temperature (31.2 °C) and pressure (7.4 MPa), non-flammability, non-toxicity [27]. The planning of active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) to create a solid quantity with appropriate chemical properties is extremely relevant. Controlling the properties of particles, size, crystal structure and morphology needed to optimize the formulation. The bioaccessibility of orally applied medication depends upon the speed of absorption and dissolution. The polymorphic management vital is crucial to attaining important levels of APIs within the blood [27–29]. For the micronization of drugs, numerous supercritical fluid techniques

have been acquired. A large number of APIs can be dissolved in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> to produce fine drug particles.

### **3.2 Supercritical carbon dioxide in the leather industry**

The conventional leather making processes involve some important steps like soaking, unhairing, deliming, tanning, fatliquoring and finishing [3]. The process of soaking is performed to renovate the natural swollen condition of hides to give away the soluble dirt and other unwanted ingredients. The epidermis, wool, and hair are eradicated in the process termed as unhairing. Liming involves loosening up of collagen fiber texture and to convert the natural grease partially. Since liming and unhairing are usually performed using sodium sulfide and lime in the same bath, therefore, it completely destroys the hair and epidermis. However, unhairing and liming are collectively termed as hair burning liming, that is quite similar to liming [30]. After deliming, the process of tanning is carried out. Pickling is to acidify the pelts to such a pH that it reduces astringency in tanning. Therefore, tanning is one of the main processes of leather production. In tanning, the material is transformed such that it prevents microbial attack [2,31]

All the processes have their own aim to be achieved using various chemicals. These chemicals get absorbed by the leather and hence, pollution is reduced. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> that is used in the process of degreasing, mitigates the pollution level while other degreasing agents like alkylphenol ethoxylates(APEO), lime, amine, boric acid, ammonium salt and naphthalene which were conventionally used as degreasing agent increase the pollution level. The supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> technology is quite advanced in comparison to the conventional one.

In 1955, the first supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> application in leather production was reported [32, 33]. Liao et al. [34] reported the first supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> equipment for leather and introduced this technology [34-37]. Liao et al. [34] used supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> as a medium for various preliminary stages of leather production.

#### **3.2.1 Degreasing**

Degreasing with supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> was first executed on animal skins in the leather process [32]. This process involved the extraction of fat from sheepskins. Liao et al. confirmed the dehydration effect of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> [34]. The traditional supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> equipment comprised of a reactor in which CO<sub>2</sub> was kept in contact with the material to recover desirable products [38]. The degreasing method is used to precisely degrease the hides irrespective of toxic solvent.



### **3.2.2 Fiber separation**

Leather fibers separation and loosening are obtained by the liming [2]. In supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> processes, the fiber separation is carried out to explore the feasibility of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> leather fiber separation [37-40]. In conclusion, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> can be used to separate out leather fibers [38].

### **3.2.3 Deliming**

In the leather production, deliming is carried out after unhairing and liming. Not only CO<sub>2</sub> gas [41] but also supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> may be utilized for ammonium free deliming, thus reducing pollution. Liao et al. [34] found that deliming process was efficient using supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, it can be concluded that deliming by utilizing the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has an upper hand over the previously used deliming methods.

### **3.2.4 Chrome tanning**

Chromium pollution is one of the major pollutions from tanneries. The reduction of chromium discharge is an emerging area of environmental research [2]. Chrome tanning using supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is found to be an innovative technique that should be adopted so as to minimize the chromium pollution in the leather field [42].

### **3.2.5 Dyeing**

The time in the dyeing process can be reduced by using the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> [43]. It can be observed that while using the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, the dye uptake had reached almost 100%. One of the main benefits of using supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> in dyeing is that it provides better penetration and evenness.

### **3.2.6 Fatliquoring**

In this process, the leather fibers are lubricated to attain the required flexibility [2]. As a raw material, mineral oil with saturated hydrocarbon, vegetable oil, and animal fats are used as fatliquoring agents. Liao group [34] proved that supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> can be used for fatliquoring. In the future, some novel fatliquoring agents based on supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> application could be developed. The fatliquor penetration and dispersion can be tuned by using the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>.

### **3.2.7 Finishing**

For the finishing process, leather is dried and prepared after the completion of wet processing. By using the appropriate finishing agents, the dried crust is coated to make

the leather ready for the use. Impregnation is carried out for coating of layers which remunerates the surface leather properties that provide it the necessary capacity to absorb.

## Conclusion

The main motive of the supercritical carbon dioxide application in leather industry is to replace the non-biodegradable surfactants and organic solvents. In this way, the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> reduces pollution due to solvent and surfactants. Although supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has a number of advantageous factors for its applications in the different process yet very few reports are available on supercritical carbon dioxide also it has an upper hand over the conventional processing methods. Thus, leather technology can be more safe, clean and green by using supercritical carbon dioxide. It is hoped that, this technology will encourage researchers to explore new opportunities.

*Table 1 Some important properties like molecular weight, the temperature of liquid, critical pressure, the critical temperature of some important supercritical fluid.*

Fluid	Molecular weight, $M_w$ (gm/mol)	Density of Liquid (gm/mol)	Temp. of Liquid ( $^{\circ}$ K)	Critical Volume, $V_c$ (cm <sup>3</sup> /mol)	Critical Pressure ( $P_c$ ) (bar)	Critical Temp. ( $^{\circ}$ K)
Acetonitrile (CH <sub>3</sub> CN)	41.05	0.782	293	173.0	48.3	548.0
Ammonia (NH <sub>3</sub> )	17.03	0.639	273	72.5	113.5	405.4
Benzene (C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>6</sub> )	78.11	0.885	289	260.0	48.9	562.2
Chloroform (CHCl <sub>3</sub> )	119.38	1.489	293	238.9	53.7	536.4
Carbon dioxide (CO <sub>2</sub> )	44.01	-	-	94.0	73.8	304.2
Carbon disulfide (CS <sub>2</sub> )	76.13	1.293	273	160.0	79.0	552.0
Dichloromethane (CH <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> )	84.93	-	-	-	63.0	510.0
Ethane (C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>6</sub> )	30.07	0.548	183	148.3	48.8	305.4
Methane (CH <sub>4</sub> )	16.04	0.425	112	98.7	46.0	190.6
Methanol (CH <sub>3</sub> -OH)	32.04	0.791	293	118.0	80.9	513.1
Nitrous Oxide (N <sub>2</sub> O)	44.01	1.226	184	97.4	72.4	309.6
n-Butane (C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>10</sub> )	58.12	0.579	293	255.0	38.0	425.2
n-Heptane (C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>16</sub> )	100.21	0.648	293	432.0	27.4	540.3
Propane (C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub> )	44.09	0.582	231	203.0	42.5	369.8
Sulfur Hexafluoride (SF <sub>6</sub> )	146.05	1.83	223	8198.8	37.6	318.7
Water (H <sub>2</sub> O)	18.02	0.998	293	55.3	221.2	647.4

*Table 2 Density, viscosity and diffusion coefficients of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> different states*

State	Density, viscosity and diffusion coefficient of liquid, gaseous and supercritical CO <sub>2</sub>		
	Density(gcm <sup>-3</sup> )	Viscosity(gcm <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	Diffusion(cm <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )
Liquid	1	10 <sup>-2</sup>	<10 <sup>-5</sup>
Gas	10 <sup>-3</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	10 <sup>-1</sup>
Supercritical	10 <sup>-1</sup> to 1 (Liquid Like)	10 <sup>-4</sup> to 10 <sup>-3</sup> (Gas Like)	10 <sup>-4</sup> to 10 <sup>-3</sup> (Liquid Like)

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## Chapter 7

# Green Solvents in Chemical Reactions

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### Abstract

Due to environmental toxicity, harmful impact and prolonged exposure of traditional solvents on all living organisms, the trend of using green technology in scientific work has been in progress. Reducing the use of solvents or replacing them with less toxic/green ones, are two of the most important ambitions of green chemistry. Water, ionic liquids (imidazolium-based), supercritical fluids, deep eutectic solvents or bio-based solvents, non-toxic liquid polymers and their varied combinations have been extensively used as part of the class of green solvents in organic synthesis. They are characterized by low toxicity, convenient accessibility, and the possibility of reuse as well as great efficiency. Moreover, green organic solvents have been used in analytical extraction and chromatographic separation processes. The use of natural ingredients to synthesize nanomaterials and design environmentally benign synthetic processes has been extensively explored.

### Keywords

Green Solvents, Chemical Reaction, Water, Ionic Liquids, Organic Synthesis, Nanomaterials, Analytical Studies

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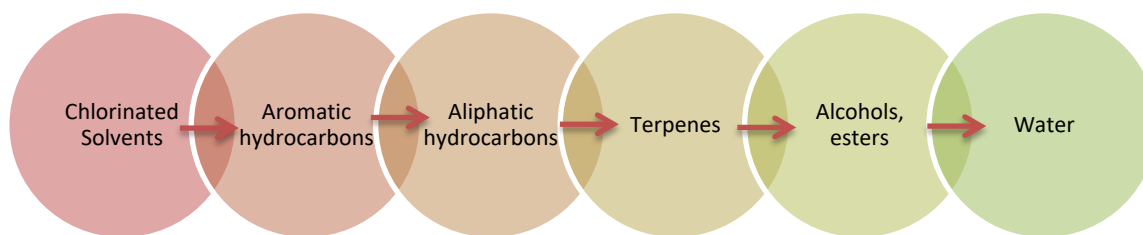
## 1. Introduction

A huge amount of volatile, flammable and poisonous organic solvents have been used in reaction systems, separation steps, and commercial applications. Nowadays, worldwide approximately 15 billion kilograms of the annual production of organic and halogenated

solvents by the majority of manufacturing industries is reported. Pharmaceutical companies use more than 80% of those in manufactures of the active ingredient. These horrendous numbers finally raised international concern in the 1960s and lead to the U.S. Pollution Prevention Act in 1990. The environmental concern of those solvents arises mainly depends on three factors: synthesis and precursor of the solvent itself; accidental discharge of solvent; and finally its disposal. Regardless of restrained, restriction being manageable in laboratory research, the environmental unfeasibility of organic solvents would limit their commercial applications in view of their toxicity and recovering. The use of volatile organic compounds and their effect on the environment recognized to re-examine various processes by the Montreal Protocol [1].

Annually, more than 20 million tons of waste residues from organic solvents are discharged to the environment, producing undesired waste of solvents and contaminating the environment [2]. In spite of the established fact that solvents, like benzene, toluene and chlorinated solvents dimethylsulfoxide, dimethylformamide, acetone, contributes to environmental pollution, but still these solvents continue to be used in bulk quantities [3]. Solvents have a detrimental effect on prolonged exposure to all systems present in living organisms, mainly damaging respiratory and nervous systems [3-4]. Furthermore, the use of harmful solvents is toxic to organs, e.g.  $\text{CCl}_4$  and  $\text{CHCl}_3$  are hepatotoxic [5-6]. Use of glycol ethers and chlorinated solvents may cause kidney failure [5]. Halogenated hydrocarbons, petroleum distillates, and diethylene glycol may cause renal tubular necrosis, even after a short period of time [7]. Long term exposure to environmental pollutants causes about one-fourth of current diseases as per data available by WHO. The toxic levels of various pollutants are increasing day by day due to the discharge of synthetic chemicals or an accumulation of natural chemicals. The number of wildlife is decreasing due to increasing levels of pollutants, damage the ecosystem and possess a threat to human health [5].

All the foregoing discussions create prodigious interest among the researchers from academia and industries to implement green chemistry in order to make a more environmentally friendly alternative to hazardous petrochemical solvents. "Green Chemistry" was developed as regulations on pollution prevention to diminish their discharges and waste. The concept of twelve principles of green chemistry seems regulation for environmentally benign solvent chemistry. The fifth principle "The use of auxiliary substances (i.e. solvents) should be made unnecessary whenever possible and, when used, innocuous" is directly refers to solvents selection [5]. The use of green solvent or replacing them with less hazardous one should be preferred to protect the environment is the main aim of green chemistry (Fig.1) [8].



Recommended	Usable	Not recommended
Water	Toulene	Dimethylformamide
Isopropyl alcohol	IsoparG	Dioxane
Acetone	Heptane	Chloroform
Ionic liquids	Dimethylsulfoxide	Hexane
Supercritical CO <sub>2</sub>	Tetrahydrofuran	Dimethylacetamide
Perfluorinated liquids	Acetonitrile	N-methylpyrrolidinone
Organic Carbonates		
Biosolvents		
Polyethylene glycol solvents		

*Fig 1. Depiction of green chemistry involving role of green solvents*

A greener environment can be obtained by solvent reduction or recycling (by using “closed-loop systems”) and switching to solvent-free processes (e.g., dry powder coatings and solid ultraviolet curable coatings, polycarbonate production using a melt phase polymerization technology). However, many reactions need solvent or liquid of some kind that can be sorted out by the use of alternatives.

Green technologies are designing new, environmentally-friendly or biosolvents (derived from agricultural crops) and tunable solvents for industrial and economic needs. Since last two decades, a extensive literature of solvents used suggests that solvents and solvent classes that have been regarded as ‘green’ solvents include water [9-17], supercritical

fluids [18-20], ionic liquids [21-37], non-toxic liquid polymers [38-42], solvents derived from biomass [43-45] and their diverse combinations. Such solvents are categorized by lesser toxicity, easy approachability and the opportunity of reusability as well as high efficiency or generally called ‘environmental, health and safety (EHS) properties [46]. A model green solvent also intercedes reactions, separations or recycling of catalyst [47]. Solvent selection guides (SSGs) developed by pharmaceutical industry companies [48]. Reichardt 1988; assessed each solvent with a labeled of either “recommended”, “problematic” and “hazardous” to “highly hazardous. The outcome and process efficiency of the reaction greatly depends on the choice of solvents and green solvents can improve the chemical processes by decreasing the number of steps of the process [5, 8, 49,50].

Several authors have mentioned the importance of green solvents in several applications [51-53]. Hackl and Kunz [52] reviewed green solvents in organic synthesis. Several green solvent alternatives to traditional solvents used are 2-methyltetrahydrofuran, ethyl lactate, cyclopentyl methyl ether, limonene, and p-cymene, as well as solvent-free organic synthesis. Gu [54] summarized multicomponent reactions (Knoevenagel condensation, activation of carbonyl group with water, imine formation, synthesis of dithiocarbamate, Isocyanide, transition metal catalysis etc) in traditional solvents like polyethylene glycol, ionic liquids, water, and bio-based solvents. Green Solvents (supercritical carbon dioxide, fluoruous solvents, water, ionic liquids, organic carbonates, and biosolvents) in organic synthesis for combating environmental damages due to the use of toxic solvents in organic chemistry. Tobiszewski and Namiesnik [55] reported the analytical applications of ionic liquids and supercritical fluids which are greener organic solvents. They suggested the use of ethanol or acetone (greener mobile phases) instead of acetonitrile in liquid chromatography and bio-organic solvents like alcohols, esters, or terpenes in solvent-based extractions. Importance of greener solvents like ionic liquids in the synthesis of various inorganic nanomaterials synthesis has been reported [56]. Lu and Ozcan [57] suggested ways to improve commercial readiness and sustainable future with current advances and challenges in green nanotechnology. In this chapter, we have summarized updated information on the use of environmentally benign solvents in the synthesis of organic compounds and inorganic nanomaterials.

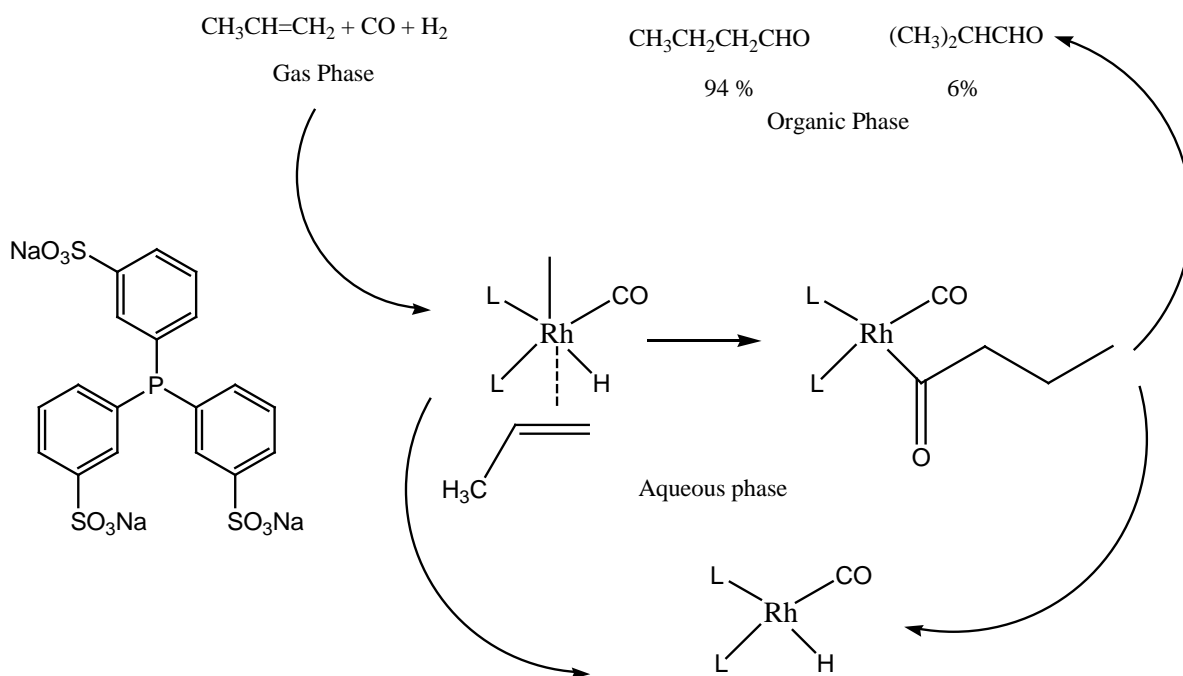
## **2. Types of green solvents used**

### **2.1 Water**

Water being a protic and polar solvent, safe, noninflammable, and abundance is the most favorable solvent ever found [58,59]. Water as greener solvent exhibits fascinating

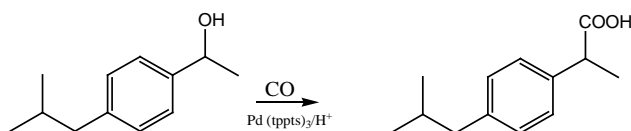
aspects concerning to reactivity: rare selectivity's, effect of hydrogen-bonding network on reaction behavior, application of biphasic reaction systems tunable pH values, and the use of salts for in/out salting-out effect. Due to reactivity and selectivity, it is possible to recover and recycle the catalyst via phase extraction in organometallic catalysis [53]. It includes not only liquid (ionic liquid), but also supercritical (fluids e.g. water, CO<sub>2</sub>) and on-water [60,61].

Pioneering works include the Ruhrchemie/Rhône-Poulenc process, hydroformylation of propylene using a rhodium complex catalyst [62] as well as other hydrogenations and hydroformylations with water-soluble organometallic complexes in aqueous biphasic systems [63,64].



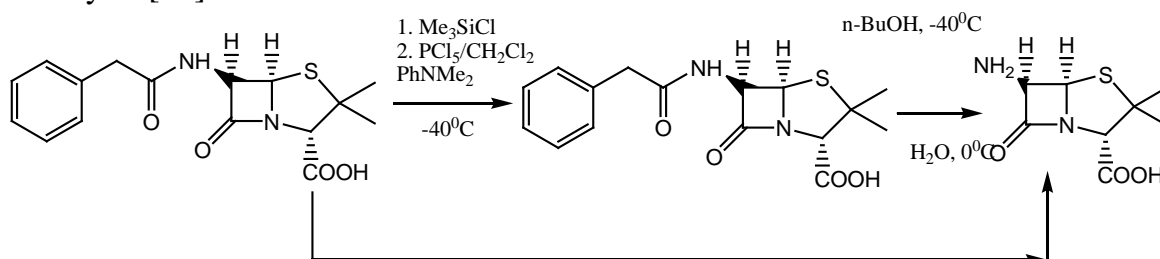
*Fig 2. Rhone-Poulenc process for aqueous biphasic hydroformylation*

Next, water-based palladium catalyzed carbonylations were studied, where the carbonylation catalyst was formed in situ from a rhodium-tppts complex or even faster, with a Pd(II) salt [65]. Of medical interest was the synthesis of ibuprofen via carbonylation in an aqueous biphasic reaction system [66] (Fig. 3). The recycling and recovering of the catalyst can be achieved by phase extraction and additionally, the aqueous bottom layer can be used for several reaction processes. As an oxidizing agent, oxygen from the surrounding air is sufficient which makes the process even greener [67].



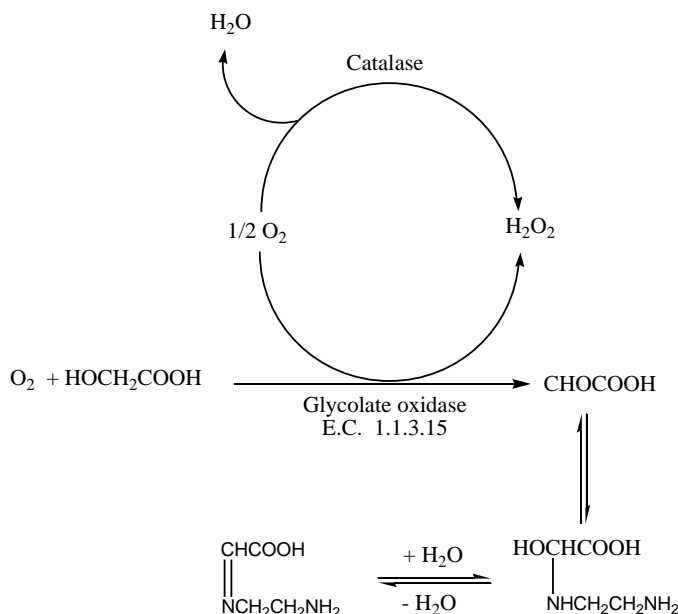
*Fig 3. Synthesis of ibuprofen via carbonylation in an aqueous biphasic reaction system*

Examples for the use of biocatalysis are the production of 6-amino penicillanic acid (APA, Fig 4) and cephalosporins based on penicillin G **1** as a starting material [68], as well as the synthesis of aspartame which is also based on highly selective enzymatic biocatalysts [69].



*Fig 4. Enzymatic versus chemical deacylation of penicillin G*

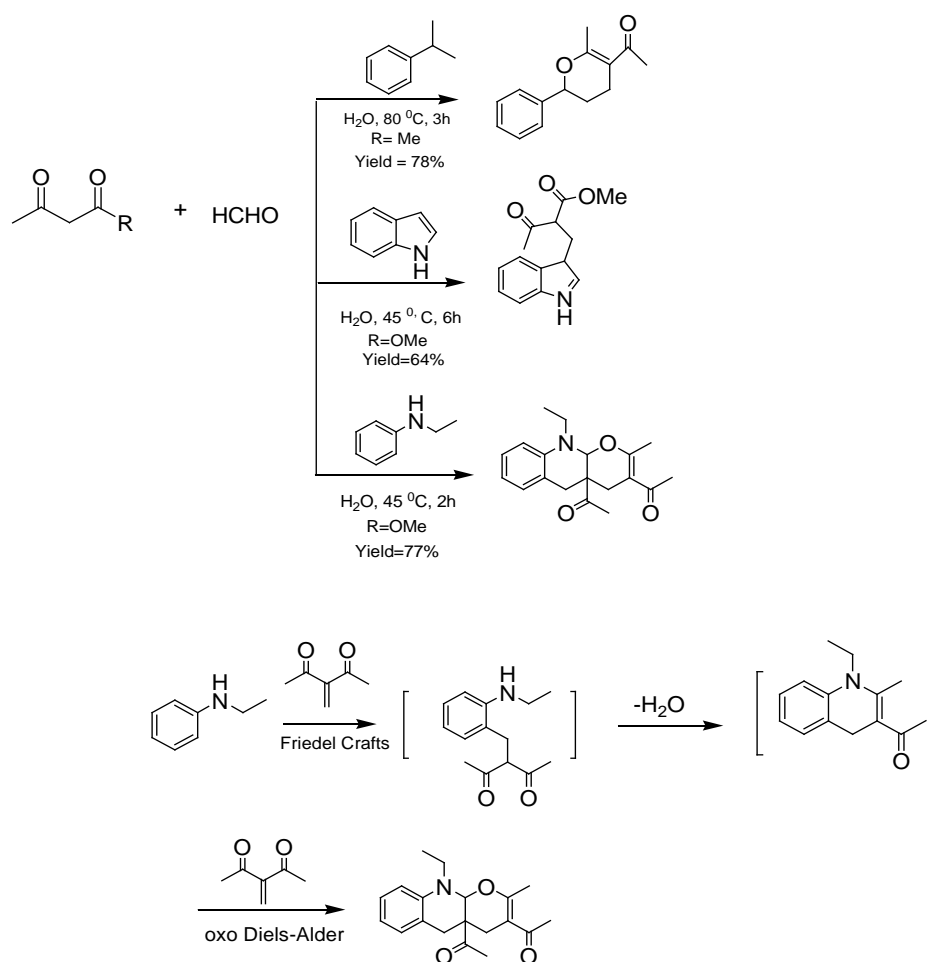
Glycolic acid, which is needed in large amounts in different chemical processes, can also be biocatalyzed via oxidase and dioxygen, generating hydrogen peroxide in situ as an oxidant Fig 5 [70].



*Fig 5. Biocatalysis of Glycolic acid*

### 2.1.1 MCRs in water based on Knoevenagel condensation

The base-catalyzed condensation reaction of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds with aldehydes is compatible using water as solvent [71,72]. Heterogeneous catalysts developed in multicomponent reactions were found water-compatible and also able to keep a high activity during recycling. Gu et al. [73] have reported the water-mediated good yields synthesis of 2,5,6-trisubstituted dihydropyrans from 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds, formaldehyde, and  $\alpha$ -methyl styrene [74-77] (Fig 6). 1,3-dicarbonyl compound and formaldehyde produced methylene intermediate which can then be trapped by  $\alpha$ -methyl styrene by oxo Diels–Alder reaction. In this reaction, water helps in the generation of methylene intermediate and enhances the speed of reaction [78].

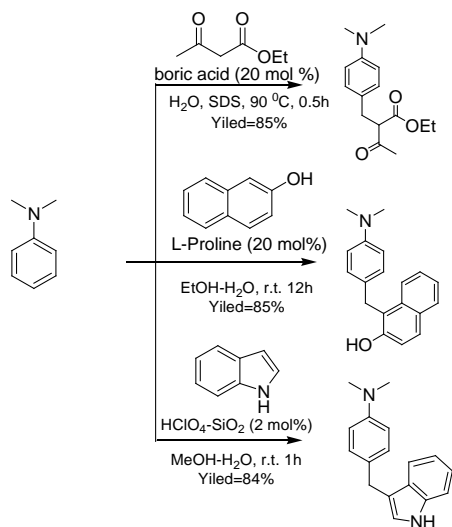


Scheme 1. MCRs of beta-dicarbonyl compound and formaldehyde in water

Fig 6. Reactions of  $\beta$ -carbonyl compound and formaldehyde in water

However, reaction faced many limitations such as involvement of many side reactions like formaldehyde with trapping reagent; methylene intermediate and 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds or C–H acids. In order to solve this, methylene intermediate was generated by oxidation of Baylis-Hillman alcohol with iodoxybenzoic acid [73]. This will be conducted in water to allow easy trapping of the methylene intermediate with several nucleophiles.

Kumar and Maurya [79] reported boric acid-catalyzed reaction of formaldehyde, 1,3-dicarbonyl compound, and N, N-dialkyl aniline, in aqueous micelles made by SDS and water (Fig 7).

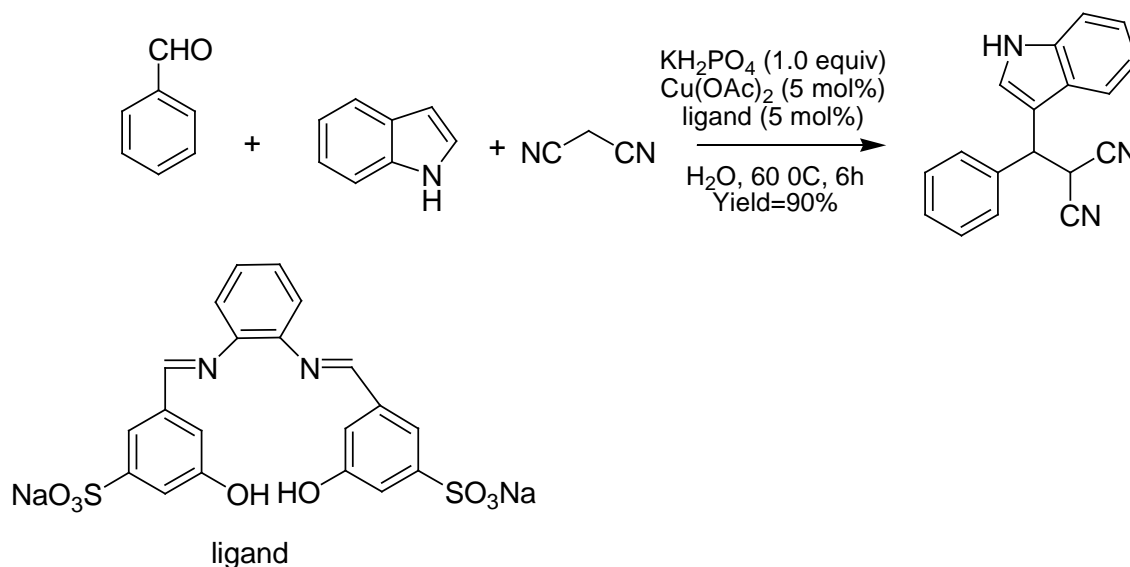


*Fig 7. Reaction of N,N-dimethylaniline and formaldehyde in water*

The condensation reaction of an aldehyde with two different nucleophiles is usually difficult to control. An efficient three-component reaction of malononitrile, indole, and aldehyde, using a copper(II) sulfonato Salen complex as a catalyst in water solvent yielded 3-indole derivative in high yield (Fig 8). Reaction selectivity and controlling the pH of the aqueous solution was improved by KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>.

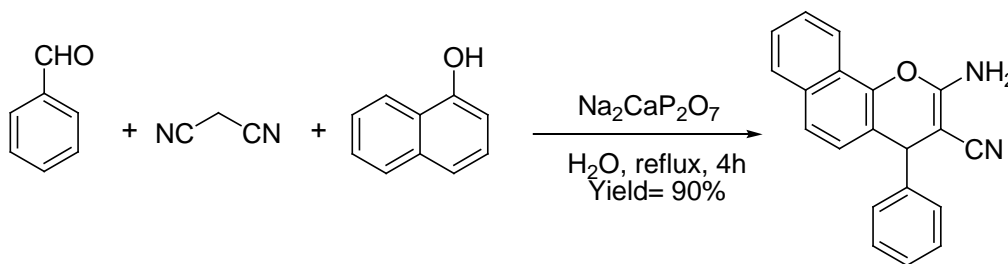
Importance of water was shown by developing a three-component reaction of 3-nitrobenzaldehyde N, N-diethyl barbituric acid, and NaCN in water. The important outcome of this reaction was that poor yields were found with the other solvents, like toluene and ethanol under similar reaction conditions. A similar observation has also been reported by Li et al. [80] on the good yield of  $\beta$ -mercapto diketone derivative 11 in water and poor with organic solvents. The products in the form of liquid crude were separated from water by extraction method. Sometimes catalysts are recyclable in aqueous conditions.





*Fig 8. Three component reaction of indole, aldehyde and mononitrile in water*

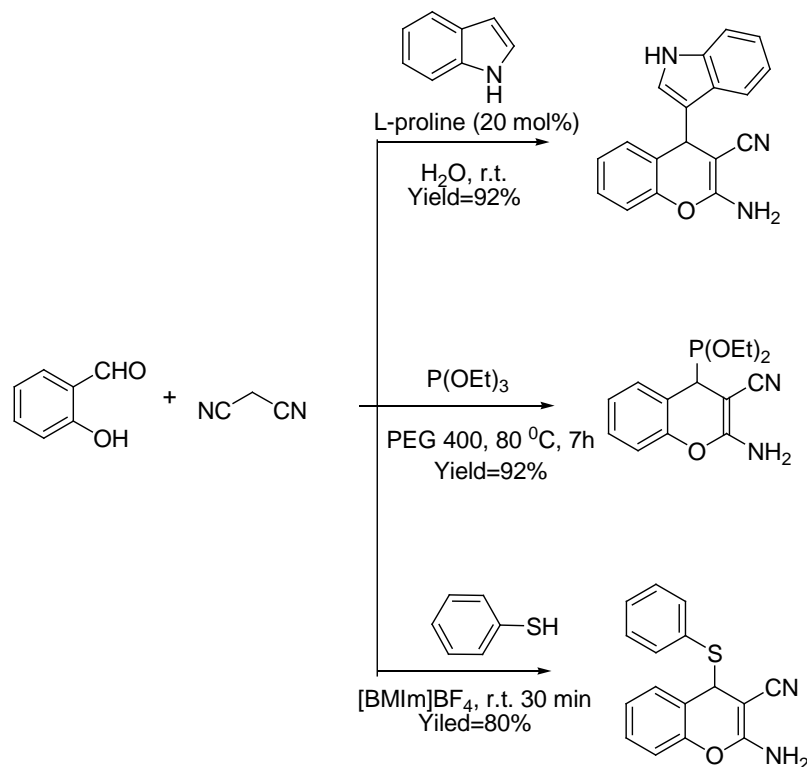
Solhy et al. [81] described an environmentally benign synthesis of 2-amino-chromene through 1-naphthol, malononitrile, and aldehyde in water (**Fig 9**). Addition of varying volumes of the yield of the reaction was increased considerably.



*Fig 9. Three component reaction of 1-naphthol, benzaldehyde and mononitrile in water*

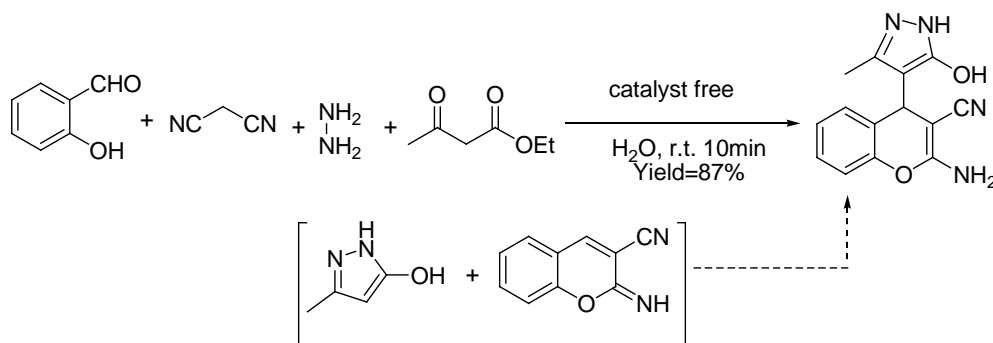
$\text{Et}_3\text{N}$  mediated 3-component reaction of 5-aminopyrazoles, aromatic aldehydes, and dimedone in water under microwave irradiation, yielding pyrazolo[3,4-b]quinolin-5-one derivatives in good to high yields. Liu et al. [82] carried out the synthesis of 3-methyl-4-arylmethylene- isoxazol-5(4H)-one **18** in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in the presence of sodium benzoate as a low-cost and green catalyst. High yield of the product observed with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  while with other solvents or under solvent-free conditions sharp decline in yields seen. Hydrophobic

interactions and basicity of sodium benzoates enhance the rate of the reaction and purity of the product in water. The similar reaction could also be accomplished in H<sub>2</sub>O in the presence of sodium silicate or pyridine with or without ultrasonic irradiation [83-84] (Fig 10).



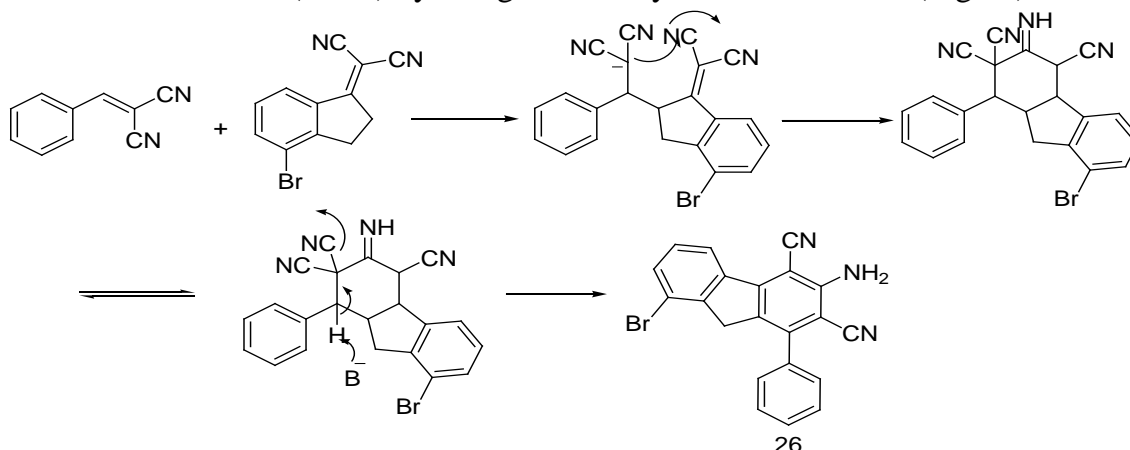
*Fig 10. Three component reaction of salicylaldehyde and malononitrile*

Kumaravel and Vasuki [85] reported the great power of water as a solvent for the creation of molecular complexity and diversity by catalyst-free synthesis of highly functionalized 4-pyrazolyl- 4H-chromene in water at ambient temperature (Fig 11). A series of 2-aryl-5-methyl-2,3- dihydro-1H-3-pyrazolones have been synthesized in the presence of p-toluene sulphonic acid in water in good yields [86].



*Fig 11. Three component reaction of hydrazine hydrate, ethyl acetoacetate, 2-hydroxybenzaldehyde and molononitrile*

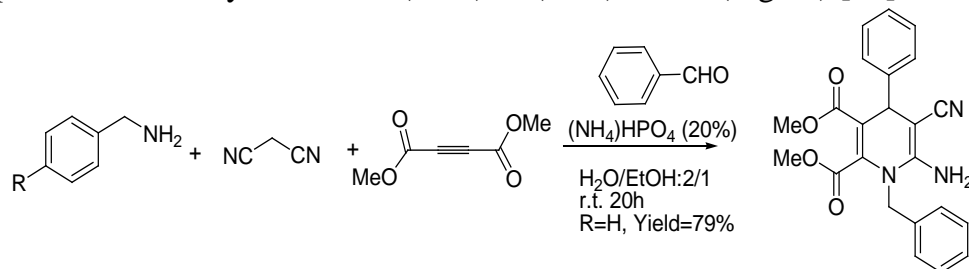
Several 2-amino-3,5- dicyanonitrile-6-thio-pyridines were synthesized in considerable yields by using boric acid [87] or basic alumina [88] as a catalyst in water. On same method, 2-amino-4-aryl(alkyl)-6-sulfanyl pyridine-3,5-dicyanonitrile was synthesized [89]. Here, the clean product was easily achieved by simple filtration followed by recrystallization with  $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$  or  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ . Similarly, Zhou et al. [90] synthesized a 3-amino-1-aryl-8-bromo-2,4-dicyano-9H fluorene derivative in aqueous media under microwave irradiation (MWI) by using sodium hydroxide as a base (Fig 12).



*Fig 12. Possible reaction mechanism for synthesizing 3-amino-1-aryl-8-bromo-2,4-dicyano-9Hfluorene derivative in aqueous media*

Mukhopadhyay et al. [91] showed the synthesis of 1,2-dihydro[1,6] naphthyridine via reaction of methyl ketone, amine, and malononitrile under catalyst-free conditions. Lu et

al. [92] reported good yields of dihydrothiophene ureido formamides in water and avoided the use of organic amine catalyst used in conventional systems. The four-component reaction of an aromatic aldehyde, dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate, benzylamine, and malononitrile undergoes easily at ambient conditions in H<sub>2</sub>O in the presence of catalytic amount (20%) of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (Fig 13) [93].



*Fig 13. Four component reaction of dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate, benzylamine and malonitrile in water*

L-proline was used as a catalyst in the four-component sequential reaction of phenylhydrazine, 3-aminocrotononitrile, aromatic aldehydes, and 2-hydroxynaphthalene-1,4-dione in aqueous media [94]. In such reactions, water was established as better solvent as compared several other organic solvents due to fact that all precursor materials were insoluble in aqueous media. Low yield, 45% after 10 h of the reaction was reported in water without any catalyst. Zou et al. [95] reported the synthesis of dihydropyrano[2,3-c]-pyrazoles under sonicator in aqueous media in the presence of a catalyst (Fig 14). The output showed decent to brilliant antibacterial activity.

Chai et al. [96] observed that water (10–20%) was essential in biocatalysis reaction for high yield. Example, excellent catalytic activity of lipase from porcine pancreas was found in aqueous media. In general, reaction depends on catalysis with enzyme while expensive enzyme catalyst limits their use.

Spirooxindoles derivatives in decent yields under water micellar media were generated using sodium stearate as a catalyst [97]. Sodium stearate also exhibits the supportive role as a surfactant in such reactions, and hence it may behave as a base to activate the substrate molecules and a surfactant to form stable colloidal dispersion with water-insoluble matrices.

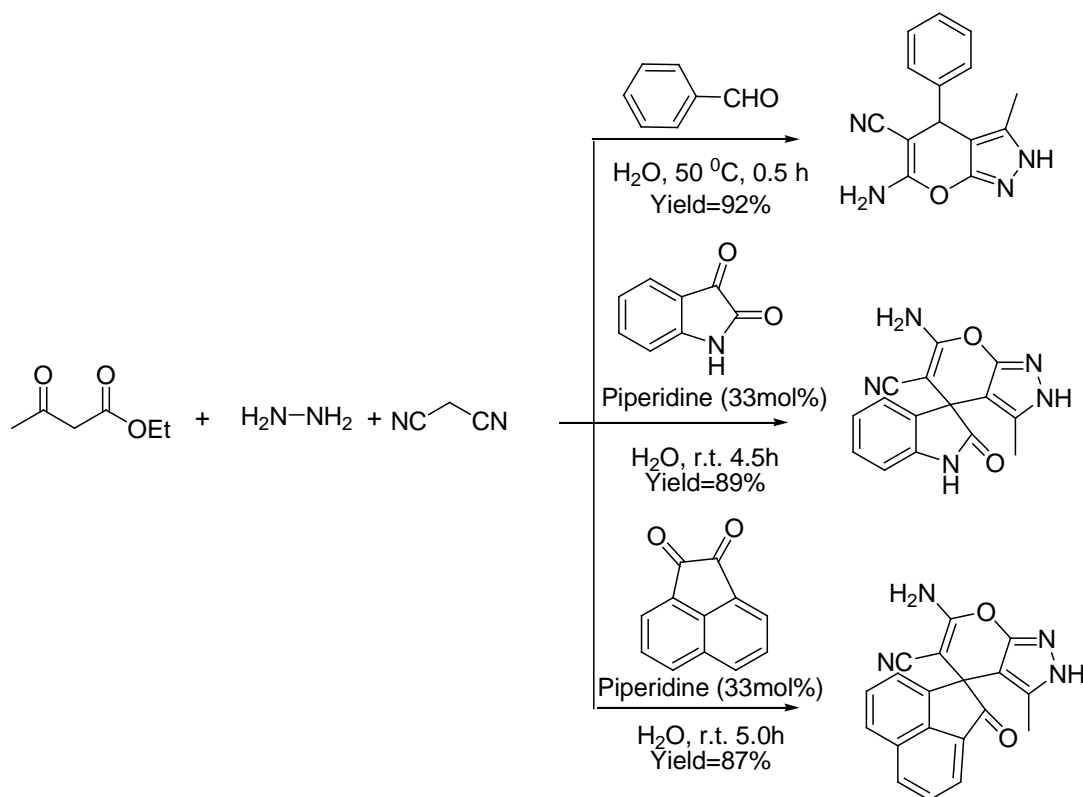


Fig 14. Four component reaction of hydrazine, ethylacetate and malononitrile in water

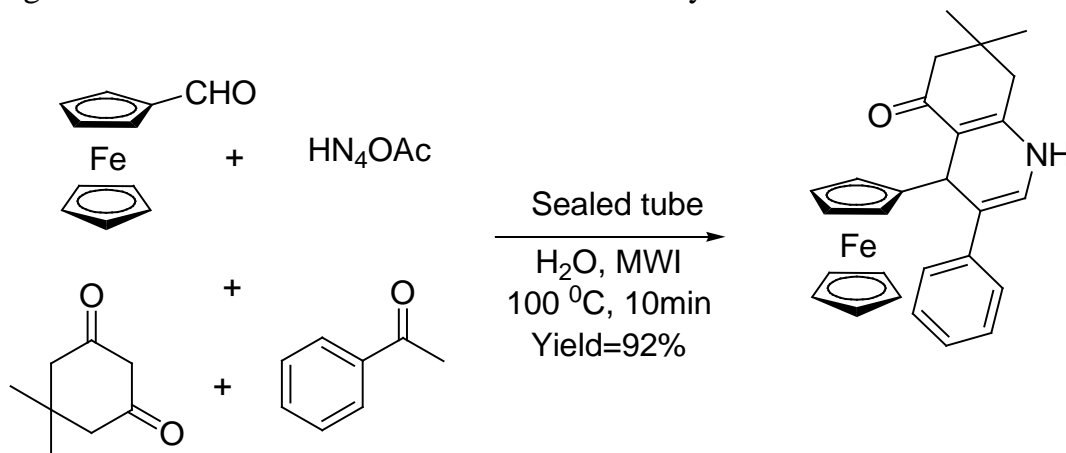
Li et al. [98] reported L-proline catalyzed the synthesis of spirooxindole derivatives in an aqueous medium. Since L-proline is soluble in the reaction medium and the desired products are less soluble in water, the products can be directly separated by cooling to room temperature and filtering after the reaction was completed.

A three-component reaction of 3-hydroxy-1H-phenalen-1-one, isatin, malononitrile and also proceeded well-using p-TSA as a catalyst in aqueous media [99]. Spirooxindole derivatives were synthesized in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  using ZnS nanoparticles under ultrasonic irradiation [100]. The reusability of ZnS NPs endowing an important characteristic of green chemistry to this system.

## 2.2.2 MCRs based on activation of carbonyl group with water

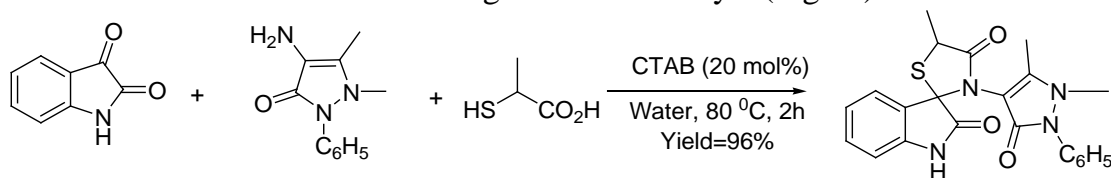
Water as a solvent can activate carbonyl group electrophilically of aldehyde through  $\text{H}_2$  bond interaction. Numerous researchers have reported good yield and feasibility of reaction using  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as solvent e.g. one-pot Hantzsch condensation (Fig 15) of an aromatic aldehyde, ammonium acetate, and dimedonein without the use of a catalyst. Rimaz and

Khalafay [101] synthesized alkyl 6-aryl-3-methylpyridazine-4-carboxylate in water avoiding the use of an acidic condition or metallic catalysts.



*Fig 15. Four component reaction of ferrocenecarboxylaldehyde, ketone, dimedone and ammonium acetate in water.*

2, 3-dihydroquinazolin-4(1H)-ones were synthesized in aqueous ethanol using  $\text{SrCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles, and ethylenediamine diacetate as a catalyst [102-104]. It was observed that when 2-aminobenzothiazole was used as substrate instead of the 1<sup>o</sup> amines, the three component reaction progressed very well in ethanol in the absence of a catalyst [105]. Recently, several spiro [indole-thiazolidinone] compounds were synthesized under ultrasonication using CTAB as catalyst (Fig 16).



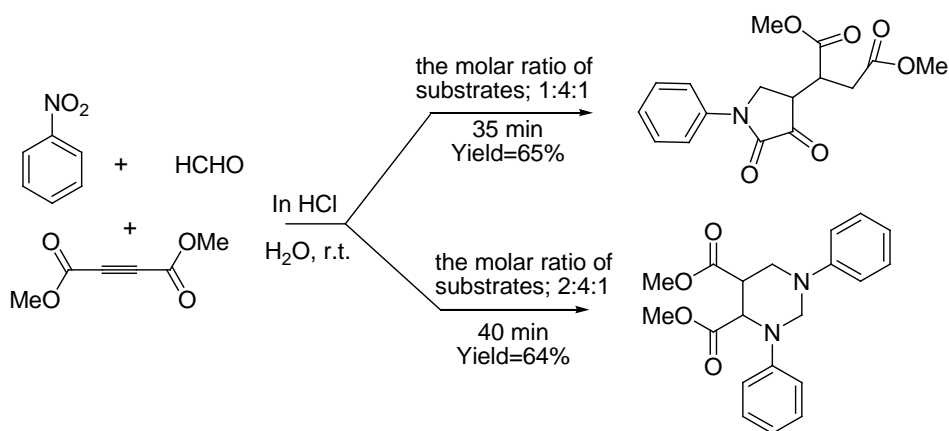
*Fig 16 Three component reaction of isatin, 4 -amino antipyrine and 2-mercaptopropionic acid in water.*

Spirooxindolepyrazoline derivatives synthesized in good yields in a pseudo-five-component reaction of isatin, 1,1-bis-(methylthio)-2-nitroethylene and hydrazine hydrate under catalyst-free conditions in water [106]. A three-component reaction of N-methylimidazole, methyl propiolate, and butyraldehyde was demonstrated to proceed well in aqueous water yielding products with good yields [107].

### 2.2.3 MCRs in water based on imine formation

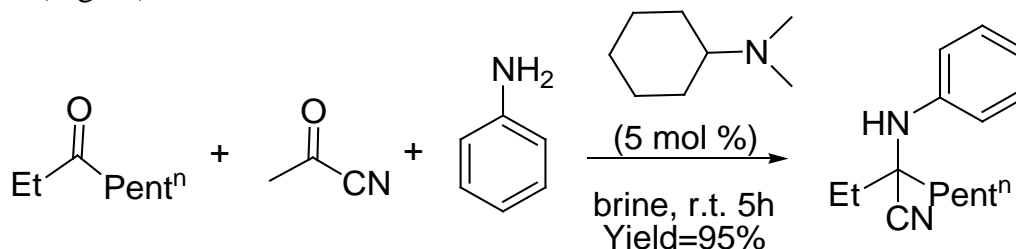
Based on observations of Tanaka and Shiraishi [108], for facile synthesis of imine from aldehyde and aniline in water, Mannich-type three-component reaction has been comprehensively examined in H<sub>2</sub>O [109]. Some homogeneous acids have also been utilized for the same reactions [110-113] though; difficulty in reusability of catalyst limits its application in useful synthesis. Hong et al. [114] joined Yb(OTf)<sub>3</sub> and a PEG-supported quaternary ammonium salt, for utilization of Mannich reaction in aqueous media. Stereoselective synthesis of 100% anti-β-amino ketones in water at room temperature in excellent yield has recently synthesized using polyaniline doped (PANI–AgNO<sub>3</sub>–p-TSA) reusable solid acid catalyst. Furthermore, it was concluded that water as solvent provides high yields as compared to the other solvents systems [115-116]. Various α-amino phosphonates synthesized in high yields using potential and cheap catalyst like magnesium dodecyl sulfate (10 mol%), Kabacknik–Fields reaction of aldehydes, amines, and triethyl or diphenyl phosphate in H<sub>2</sub>O [117]. The similar reaction may also be performed in aqueous media using K<sub>2</sub>PdCl<sub>4</sub> as a catalyst [118] and with SO<sub>3</sub>H-functionalized ionic liquid that generates α-aminonitriles in good yields with reusability of catalyst [119-121].

One-pot, facile and direct route for diastereoselective synthesis piperidine derivatives performed in aqueous media in the presence of catalytic amount of Bi(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub> at room temperature [122]. 1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyrimidine, 1,3,4,5-tetrasubstituted and 1,3,3-trisubstituted 4,5-dioxopyrrolidine were formed in good to high yields using water as solvent at room temperature in dilute HCl with the addition of indium (Fig 17) [123].



*Fig17. Three component reactions of nitroarenes, formaldehyde and acetylenedicarboxylate in water*

García-Tellado et al. [124] established a Strecker reaction of acetyl cyanide, aniline and ketones in water showed an added advantage in evolving environmentally benevolent systems (Fig 18).



*Fig 18. Strecker reaction of ketones, aniline and acetyl cyanide in water*

Galletti et al. [125] developed a simple and facile scheme for the synthesis of  $\alpha$ -amino nitriles via a one-pot, three-component reaction of an amine, the carbonyl compound and acetone cyanohydrin in aqueous media has been established owing to the immiscibility of the substrates and products with H<sub>2</sub>O.

Mathew and M. Nath [126] reported a three-component reaction of phenols, formaldehyde, and amines in water in absence of any catalyst, yielding product in a 30 min to 1 h at 25 °C in water with high yields. It is important to mention here that the same reaction takes several hours to days to complete with other organic solvents. Zanardi et al. [127] reported Mukaiyama–Mannich type reaction of a pyrrole ketene silyl-N, anilines, O -acetal and various aldehydes in water and solvent-free conditions. Excellent yields, with  $\gamma$ -site selectivity and chemo-selectivity, and moderate to high diastereoselectivity in favor of anti-configured adducts have been observed in this reaction. It is noteworthy that one-pot synthesis in ultrasonic condition was found more effective than the traditional two-step method [128]. Water was found to be more effective than other organic solvents, like dichloromethane, ethanol, 2-propanol, acetonitrile under similar conditions.

Overall, it was concluded that most of the three component reaction performed under aqueous media and in the absence of a catalyst and resulted in a high yield of products.

#### **2.2.4 Synthesis of dithiocarbamate through MCRs in water**

Alizadeh and Zohreh [106] reported catalyst-free three-component reaction of fumarylchloride, carbon disulfide and benzylamine in water at room temperature. The main function of water was in the concluding step of hydrolysis of intermediate leads to the excellent yields of product in 12 h. Excellent yields of alkyl dithiocarbamates was



obtained with one-pot reaction of primary and secondary amines and carbon disulfide with alkyl vinyl ethers in pure water under catalyst-free conditions at room temperature (Fig 19) [129-130]. Although the good performance of water as a solvent in this reaction was established, but cannot be ascribed to an accelerating effect of water on the reaction since the other solvents, like THF and ethanol, may also produce the desired products with similar yield.

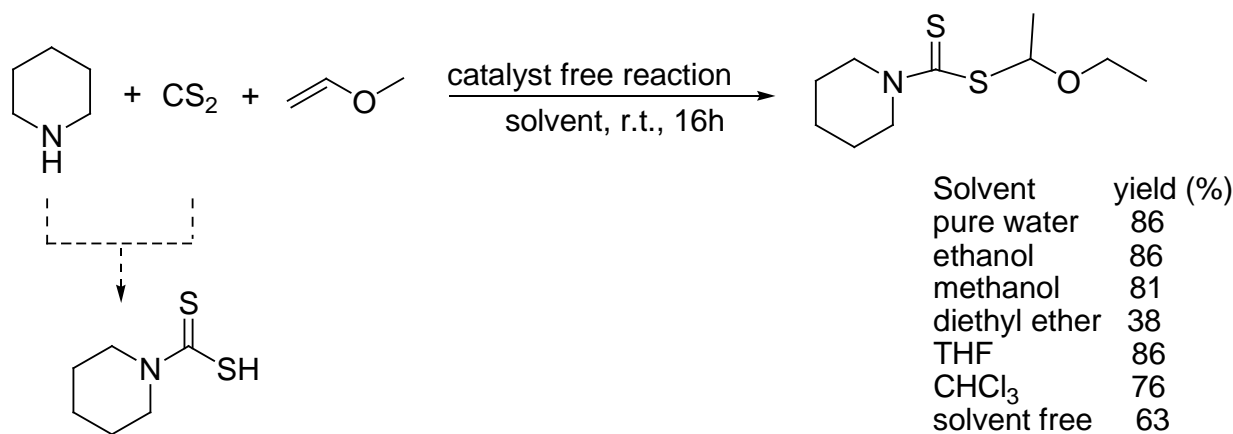


Fig 19. Three component reaction of amine, CS<sub>2</sub> and alkyl vinyl ether in water

Ranu et al. [131] synthesized S-aryl dithiocarbamates, by a one-pot condensation of aryl diazonium fluoroborate, carbon disulfide, and amine in the catalyst-free conditions in aqueous media at room temperature (Fig 20). This method has benefits of using non-toxic phenyl diazonium tetrafluoroborates and water in the propagation of the green chemistry requirements of current organic synthesis.

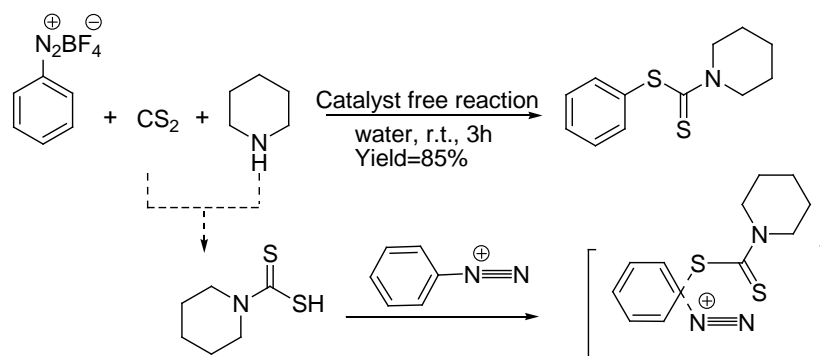
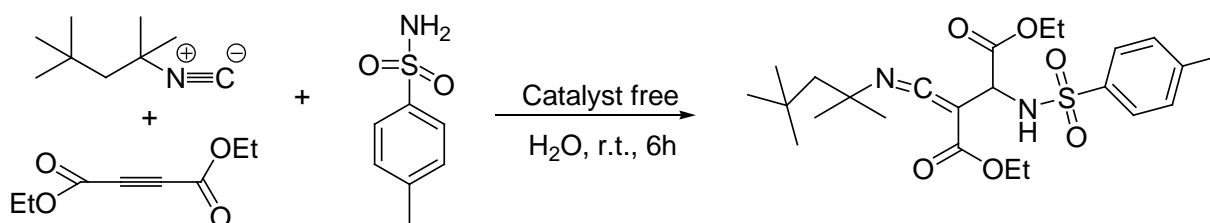


Fig 20. One pot condensation of aryl diazonium fluoroborate, CS<sub>2</sub> and amine

### 2.2.5 Isocyanide-based MCRs in water

Isocyanide is an extraordinary functional group in Passerini and Ugi reactions. Santra and Andreana [132] realized a novel Ugi-type four-component reaction of *p*-hydroxybenzaldehyde, benzylamine, fumaric acid monoethyl ester, and *tert*-butyl isocyanide in water under microwave irradiation, yields to products similar to natural-product such as 5,5,6-fused azaspiro tricycle. It was concluded that water as a solvent has the excessive capacity for generating molecular complexity. An effective methodology for the development of ketenimine sulfonamides derivatives in the presence of alkyl or aryl sulphonamides in aqueous media under catalyst-free conditions [133] (Fig 21). Essentially, the products may finally get hydrolyzed to the sulfonamide-butanamide derivatives at 80 °C in water with good yields under catalyst-free conditions. In the same pattern, the zwitterion resulted from the reaction of an alkyl isocyanide and a dialkyl acetylenedicarboxylate, reacts freely with phenacyl halides in water to yield  $\gamma$ -iminolactone derivatives with high yields [134]. 3,4-dihydrocoumarin derivatives in decent to high yields under catalyst-free conditions or activation by simple one-pot protocol at room temperature[133].

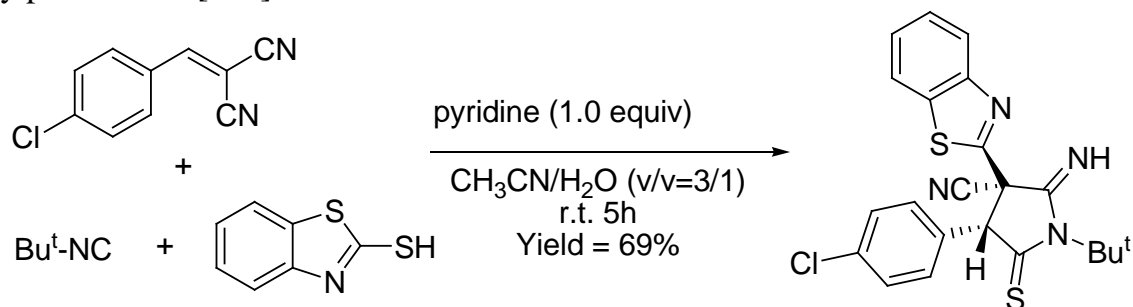


*Fig 21. Three componenet reaction of isocyanides, diethyl acetylenedicarboxulate and alkyl or aryle sulfonamide in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$*

A three-component reaction of an isocyanide, dialkyl acetylenedicarboxylate, and 4-hydroxycoumarin in water at 80 °C, in the presence of a phase-transfer catalyst, tetrabutylammonium bromide, yielded a pyrano[3,2-*c*]-coumarin with good yields [135]. An effective three-component reaction of isocyanides, heterocyclic thiols and gem-dicyano olefins having electron-withdrawing groups in an aqueous solution of acetonitrile, produced imino-pyrrolidine-thione scaffoldin high yields have been reported [136] (**Fig 22**).

Passerini reaction organic solvents reported the formation of the product with a 50% yield after 18 h, while the use of water yielded the product 25 quantitatively within 3.5 h

on. The products of Ugi- Passerini reaction in water could be collected by filtration as the only purification [137].



*Fig 22. Three-component reaction of isocyanides, heterocyclic thiols and gem-dicyano olefins in water.*

### 3. MCRs in water based on transitional metal catalysis

Carrying out a transitional-metal-catalyzed reaction in aqueous offers an easy approach to expand the efficacy and user-friendliness of this process [138] to utilize a biphasic system, in such a way that the homogeneous catalyst is soluble in one phase (e.g. water) and the other in the organic phase [139]. Simple phase separation of the product can be obtained. With such an approach, manufacturing applications have been rapidly recognized, like the Ruhrchemie AG/Rhone-Poulenc process for the hydroformylation of propylene. Reusable design of homogeneous metal complex catalysts in aqueous has received great attention. An ammonium salt-tagged [(SIPr)CuCl] complex have recently developed, showed a high catalytic potential for the extensive arrange of benzyl bromides and alkynes in water at room temperature [140]. Since the catalyst is water soluble, therefore, it could be easily reusable up to three times without a substantial loss of its activity with catalyst loading as low as 2.0 mol% in the new run. High yield of 1,4-disubstituted 1,2,3-triazole in water using structurally well-defined efficient catalyst copper (I) isonitrile complex was reported [141]. Liu and Xia [142] synthesized three solid Cu catalysts to be used as effective catalysts for the one-pot synthesis of 1,4-disubstituted-1,2,3-triazoles by the reaction of alkyl halides with sodium azide and terminal alkynes in water at room temperature. Due to the high proton-providing ability of water in catalyst systems, water was demonstrated to be a more appropriate solvent than others.

The nano-ferrite-supported copper catalyst was synthesized under ultrasonication of ferrites nanoparticles with glutathione in H<sub>2</sub>O for 2 h, after that the CuCl<sub>2</sub> in alkaline aqueous conditions was added [143]. Under microwave irradiation, the catalyst was

reusable ( $n=3$ ) and efficiently catalyze Huisgen 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reactions in aqueous media.

A novel mixed catalyst of oxidized copper nanoparticles on activated carbon (CuNPs/C) for the multicomponent Huisgen 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition in water was developed and found that the catalyst was recyclable and apparently activates under heterogeneous conditions (Fig 23) [144].

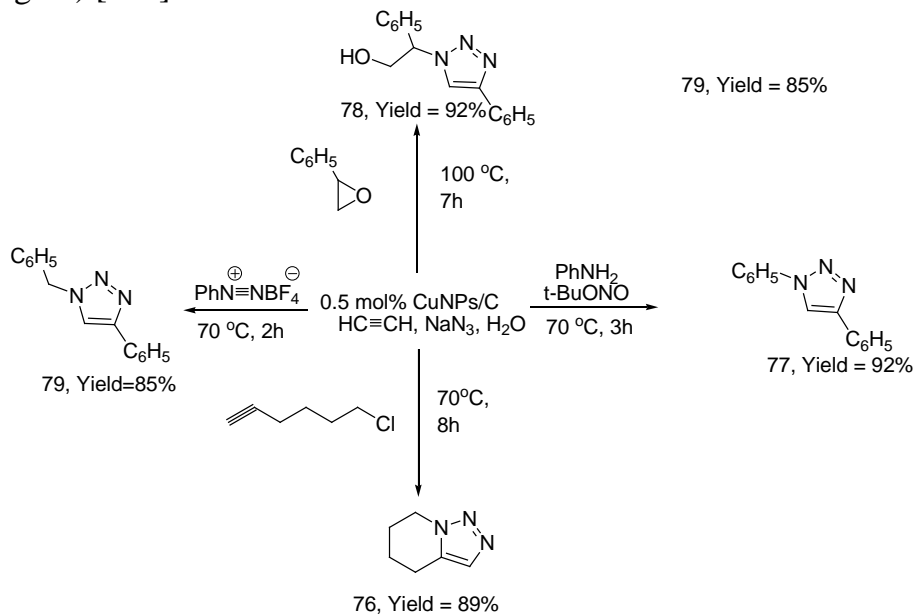
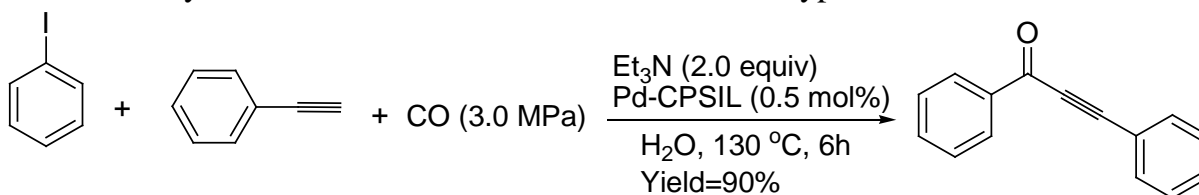


Fig 23. Scheme 44 Multicomponent Huisgen 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition in water catalyzed by CuNPs/C

Since azetidinone may react freely with alkyl azide in water [145]. MCR of azetidinone, sodium azide, and terminal alkyne goes well in water using various Cu based catalysts. With a yield of 95% copper iodide was found the best choice of catalyst. It was concluded that water was the perfect solvent capable of supporting a Cu(I) acetylide species formed during the reaction. Using one-pot pseudo-five-component reaction between numerous azides, dimedone, aromatic propargylated aldehydes, and anilines a number of triazolyl methoxyphenyl 1,8-dioxo-decahydroacridine derivatives were synthesized in of ethanol [146]. A mixture of  $\text{Cu}(\text{OAc})_2$ /sodium ascorbate and 1-methylimidazolium trifluoroacetate was utilized as a catalyst in order to get high yield.

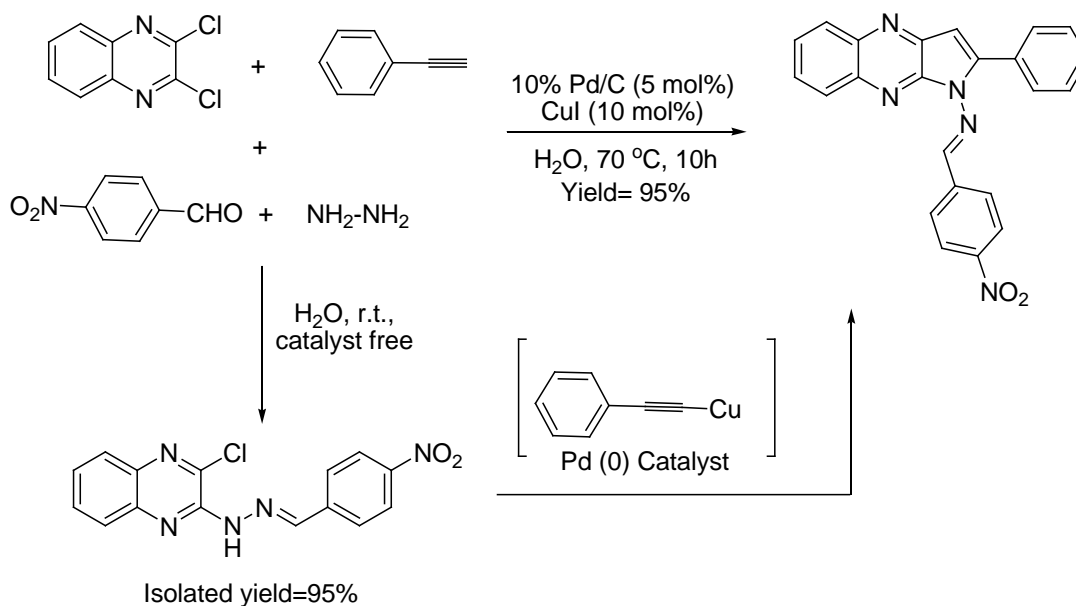
Palladium supported catalyst (Pd-CPSIL) have been found as an efficient heterogeneous catalyst for the generation of several  $\alpha,\beta$ -alkynyl ketones in good to high yields by aryl

iodides with terminal alkynes in aqueous media (Fig 24). Use of such catalytic system evades the use of noxious phosphine ligands and also answered the recovery and reuse of Pd based catalysts which were a common issue with such types of reactions.



*Fig 24. Carbonylative Sonogashira coupling reaction of aryl iodides with terminal alkynes in water*

Synthesis of N-substituted pyrrolo[2,3-b]quinoxalines in water using one-pot Pd/Cu-catalyzed, the four-component reaction of 1,2- dichloroquinoxaline, hydrazine hydrate, phenylacetylene, and aromatic aldehydes has been reported (Fig 25).



*Fig 25. Pd/Cu catalysed four component reaction of 1,2 dichloroquinoxaline, hydrazine hydrate, phenylacetylene and aromatic aldehyde in water*

One-pot gold mediated t-coupling reaction in water obtained high aldehyde conversion by single-site incorporation of amines and alkynes into aldehyde-containing oligosaccharides [142].

Various nitrogen-containing biologically active compounds and natural products were synthesized using propargylamines as intermediates. Adapa and co-worker [147] established a convenient and efficient route for good to excellent yields production of propargylamines through one pot three-component coupling reaction of an aldehyde (aromatic, hetero or aliphatic), amines, and alkyne using  $\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2/2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  zinc salts in a catalytic amount without any use of additives or base.

Kumar et al. [148] synthesized dihydrothiophenes and tacrine derivatives hexahydrothieno[2,3-b]quinoline-2-carboxamide with good to high yields in aqueous media.

#### 4. Fluorous solvents (perfluorinated liquids)

They are “aqueous” to perfluorinated alkanes, dialkyl ethers, and trialkyl amines (Fig 26) [149-150]. Lack of intermolecular interactions in ethers and amines is credited to their no residual basicity [151]. These have useful and attractive properties (chemical inertness, high thermal stability, nonflammability, an extreme nonpolar character, and small intermolecular attraction) for organic synthesis [152]. Their immiscibility with common organic solvents at room temperature allows the formation of biphasic systems which have been extensively studied in stoichiometric and catalytic transformations [153-155]. It dissolves catalyst by attaching fluorocarbon moieties such as linear or branched perfluoroalkyl chains.

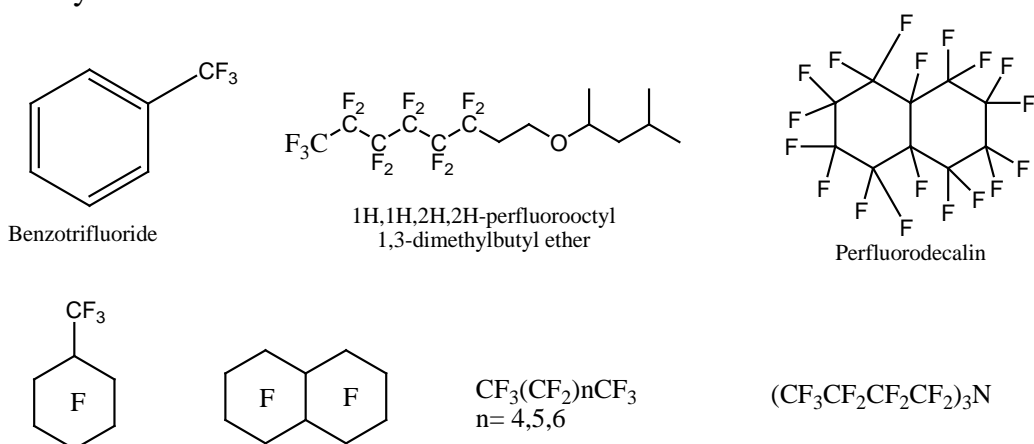
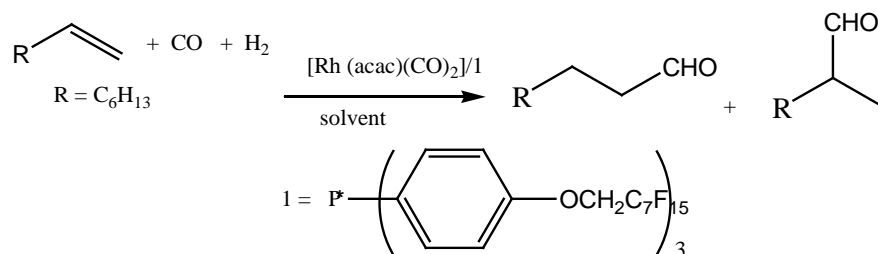


Fig 26. Various fluororous solvents

At higher temperature, fluorous biphasic systems can become miscible forming a homogenous liquid phase reaction media. Thus, the advantages of both, a single-phase media for the reaction and a biphasic system for separation of the products can be exploited [58, 150]. Fluorous solvents are not yet widely used commercially, probably due to drawbacks like rather high cost, environmental persistence, and biological half-lives, especially of C7- and C8-perfluoroalkyl group-containing compounds [58, 156].

Aldehydes or ketones, amines, and trimethylsilyl cyanide or trimethyl phosphate reacted efficiently in recyclable 1,1,1-trifluoroethanol in a one-pot coupling reaction to give the corresponding amino nitriles or  $\alpha$ -amino phosphonates with high yields, without the requirement of any acid or base catalyst [157].

Hydroformylation of 1-octene was achieved with Rh-fluorous phosphine  $\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{-OCH}_2\text{C}_7\text{F}_{15})_3$  as an active catalyst in a fluorous biphasic system. The authors reported high selectivity for aldehydes (up to 99%) and high regioselectivity for the linear product (Fig 27) [158].



*Fig 27. High selectivity for aldehydes (up to 99%) and a high regioselectivity for the linear product*

Caballero et al. [159] have developed the efficient functionalization of various linear and branched alkanes by inserting a carbene group from ethyl diazoacetate and a complex catalyst ( $\text{TpBr}_3\text{M}$  [Ag;  $\text{TpBr}_3$ =hydrotris (3,4,5-tribromopyrazolyl)borate]) in a fluorous medium. This method provides the advantage that the catalyst can easily be reusable and employed for several runs without significant loss of activity.

## 5. Supercritical fluids

A number of physical properties, like thermal conductivity, density, and diffusion coefficients are different and variable between “gas-like” and “liquid-like” states through an easy change of pressure and/or temperature at supercritical state [160]. The synthesis of nanoparticles could be wisely influenced in terms of size, morphology,

structure, composition and architecture with the change in operating parameters, like reaction solvent type, temperature, time, and concentration of reagent.

### **5.1 Supercritical water (scWater)**

Supercritical water behaves like a nonpolar solvent and exists at pressures above 221 bar and temperatures above 374 °C [161]. The nonpolarity is caused by the loss of hydrogen bonding, hence salts are no more soluble in scWater, while O<sub>2</sub> and nonpolar solvents are soluble. Therefore, oxidation reactions in scWater have been developed and studied since the 1970s, mainly for the disposal of organic waste. Unfortunately, there has not been a solution for the occurring corrosion problems due to halogen traces yet, leading to the failure of commercialization of this method [60]. Sue et al. [163] established that the variation of dielectric constant is the main factor on which solubility of materials depends. By tuning the dielectric constant, the size of the nanoparticles can be controllable (narrow) in supercritical hydrothermal synthesis [162-163]. Complexation between the organics and the surface of nanoparticles facilitated due to dispersity of nanoparticles in various solvents.

### **5.2 Supercritical carbon dioxide (scCO<sub>2</sub>)**

Supercritical carbon dioxide exists at a pressure of 74 bar and temperature of 304 K, Fig. 11a) is extra fever than those of water (221 bar and 646 K) owing to excellent properties like nonflammable, renewable, safe, readily evaporating and chemically inert towards many substances [58]. It is featuring gas-like viscosities and liquid-like densities but with outstanding solvent wetting stuff. It was concluded that “coffee rings” formed by evaporation in many solvents could be reduced using scCO<sub>2</sub> to generate ordered lattices of nanoparticles [160]. Changing either the temperature or the pressure leads to dramatic changes in its viscosity, density, and dielectric properties. This makes supercritical carbon dioxide an unusually tunable, environmentally friendly, versatile and selective solvent [60]. These characteristics, in addition, to easy recovery and reusability via depressurization, leads to significant reduction of energy responses related to industrial production [161].

#### **Reactions in scCO<sub>2</sub>**

The synthesis of nanoparticles could be controllable by a change in the temperature and pressure because the values of dielectric constant, density and viscosity are significantly sensitive to the variation of temperature and pressure [164]. Pai and co-workers [165] successfully altered the solubility of reactants as well as the catalysts by modifying scCO<sub>2</sub> pressure in the synthesis of mesoporous metal oxides using micelles as the template of the block copolymer. The simplification of this methodology lies in the



variability of  $\text{scCO}_2$  and the flexibility of morphology of the templates. The potential of supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  as an environmentally preferable solvent is now being realized in several areas. One of the main use of  $\text{scCO}_2$  is in the food and nutrition industry, where it aids as an extraction medium for decaffeination processes for coffee beans and tea, thus effectively substituting earlier used chlorinated organic solvents. The other main applications of  $\text{scCO}_2$  implementation are pharmaceutical processing, dry cleaning, metal degreasing, and polymer modification. A feature of supercritical carbon dioxide is its high miscibility with gases, which is especially useful in reactions such as hydrogenation with  $\text{H}_2$ , oxidation with  $\text{O}_2$  and hydroformylation [166-168] with syngas ( $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$ ), leading to great efficiency and often excellent selectivity [169]. Furthermore and due to its plasticizing and swelling effects,  $\text{scCO}_2$  can easily be separated from catalysts and products by simple depressurization and recapture. It is therefore repeatedly applied as a green reaction medium for catalysis [170].

Recently, Melo et al. [171] reported some catalyzed hydrogenation methods of carvone with  $\text{scCO}_2$  thereby varying the pressure of  $\text{scCO}_2$ . By using mild reaction conditions, great conversion, and diverse and high product selectivity could be achieved. Furthermore, short reaction time depends on the catalyst was comprehended in supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  compared to hydrogenation occurring in traditional organic solvents. Also Endalkachew et al. [172] reported the catalytic hydrogenation of anthracene in  $\text{scCO}_2$  over Ni supported on H $\beta$ -zeolite catalyst thereby yielding 100% yield due to reduced mass transfer limitations and increased solubility of  $\text{H}_2$  and substrate in dense  $\text{CO}_2$  medium (Fig 29).

The epoxidation of propylene to propylene oxide via hydrogen peroxide, catalyzed by Pd/titanium silicalite in supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  was reported [173]. The use of  $\text{scCO}_2$  as the reaction medium considerably enhanced the catalytic activity of the large-grain in particular but also the small-grain TS-1 and increased the propylene oxide yield, as propylene has high miscibility in  $\text{scCO}_2$ . Transport limitations could be eliminated successfully thereby increasing catalytic performance due to mass-transfer and diffusion performance of  $\text{scCO}_2$ . Jiang et al. [174] have reported an effective procedure for generation of high yields tetrasubstituted alkenes in  $\text{scCO}_2$ . Addition of methanol as co-solvent with  $\text{scCO}_2$  was proven to be an efficient medium for such a Pd-catalyzed system. Products were easily separated from catalyst due to the low viscosity of  $\text{scCO}_2$  while catalyst was partly dissolved in the suitable quantities of methanol in  $\text{scCO}_2$ . Substituting  $\text{scCO}_2$  with other solvents, like dioxane, tetrahydrofuran, water, ethanol, dimethylsulfoxide, acetonitrile, toluene, and dimethylformamide resulted in significant decline the yields of reaction, thus showing the vital effect of  $\text{scCO}_2$  in stimulating the reaction.

## 6. Ionic liquids (ILs)

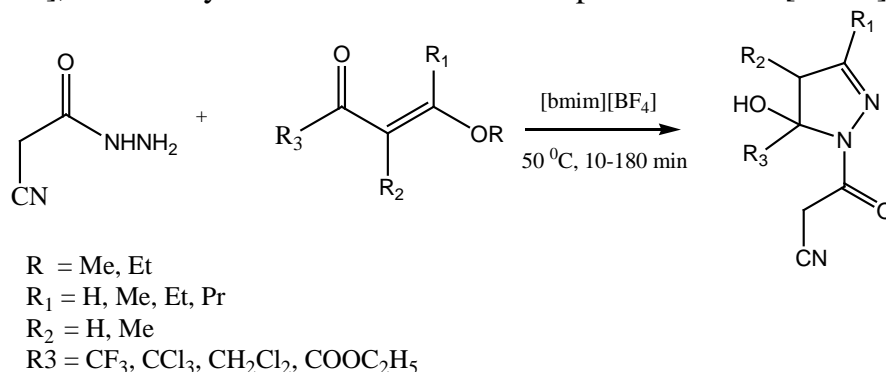
Ionic liquids are electrically conductive liquids comprised of charged organic and inorganic ion pairs, highlighting liquid state at room temperature. Ionic liquids have low combustibility, exceeding thermal stability as well as solvating qualities [152]. Whenever, ILs are used as solvents there is no need of extra capping agents that will further lessen the material usage and made reactions easy. Since a number of organic, inorganic as well as polymeric molecules which are well soluble in ILs hence they used as solvents or reaction medium for many separations or catalytic processes [60]. The solvating properties of ILs are depending on the smaller anions and larger organic cations, the ILs consist of: anions like acetate, benzoate, formate, halides, hexafluorophosphate, hydrogensulfate, methanesulfonate, nitrate, phosphate, tetrafluoroborate, thiocyanate, tosylate and trifluoromethanesulfonate anions and cations: ammonium, imidazolium, phosphonium, pyridinium and pyrrolidinium cations [153].

ILs as such is not green but as solvents, it makes the whole reaction process greener in some cases [61]. Earlier it was considered green because of its negligible vapour pressure and not releasing of volatile organic compounds. Many ILs are highly biodegradable and exhibited substantial toxicity [22-24]. Moreover, they are expensive, with high to very high viscosity and their synthesis required special effort. ILs are stable over a good range of temperature and can be used in biphasic systems due to the immiscibility with some organic solvents. After extraction with an organic solvent, the catalyst leftovers in the IL and can easily be recycled. ILs might be used as catalysts themselves, as well as ligands or as solvents simultaneously.

Widely used ILs are N, N0-dialkylsubstituted imidazolium cations, choline hexanoate (potentially green due to the capacity to dissolve suberin, the main component of cork and a natural polyester) [29] and sodium 2,5,8,11-tetraoxatridecan-13-oate ([Na][TOTO]) containing ethylene oxide (EO) groups [30]. These TOTO complexes are low-cost, obtainable in bulk amounts, of less toxicity and, as compared to choline ILs, even added in cosmetic products. Additionally, they persuade with great thermal and electrochemical stability.

Many ionic liquids have been used for the synthesis of thiazoles which are imperative in organic and medicinal chemistry [175-177]. Condensation of aldehydes and ketones with hydroxylamine hydrochloride using 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hydroxide ([bmim]OH) or the condensation of indoles with benzaldehydes under microwave conditions with 1-benzyl-3-methylimidazolium hydrogensulfate ([bnmim][HSO<sub>4</sub>]) as a catalyst has been reported [178]. The reaction products are used in tumor chemotherapy [179]. Also, Friedal-Crafts acylations can be carried out with inorganic Lewis acidic ionic

liquid catalysts like [bmim]Cl-AlCl<sub>3</sub>[180]. In regard to agricultural and medicinal chemistry [181], halomethylated  $\beta$ -enaminones were produced with [bmim]BF<sub>4</sub>.



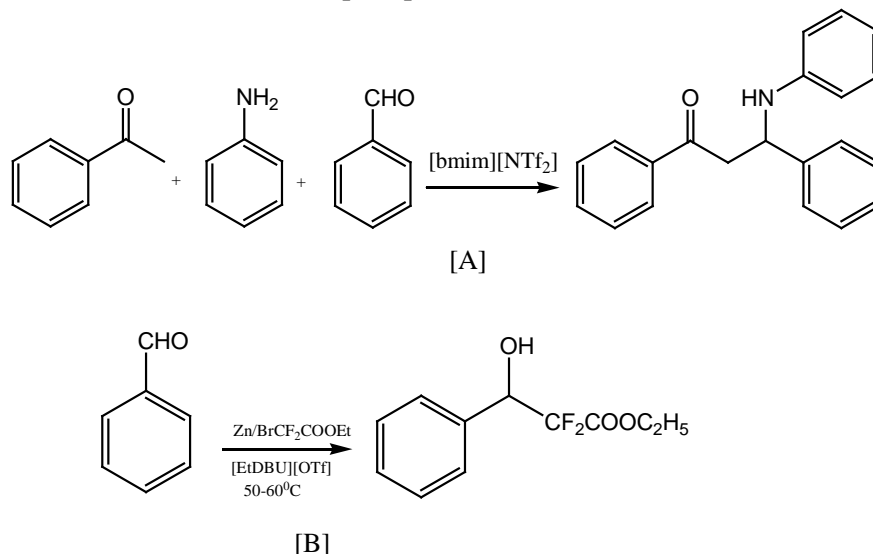
*Fig 28. Use of the ionic liquid [bmim]BF<sub>4</sub> for the production of halomethylated  $\beta$ -enaminones*

The synthesis of xanthenes for laser technology, biological and pharmaceutical use could be realized with the Brønsted acidic 1-methyl-3-propanesulfonic imidazolium hydrogensulfate ([mimps][HSO<sub>4</sub>]) with five-fold recycling of the catalyst [182]. Concerning the treatment of several severe illnesses such as cancer, AIDS and other 1,4-benzodiazepine-2,5-diones could be synthesized in a green reaction using 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide in the presence of isatoic anhydrides and amino acids [183]. Pyrazolines [184] and olefins [185] are other examples for the successful use of ILs as catalysts and/or solvents in green reaction conditions.

Suresh and Sandhu [186-188] refer to other standard reactions in organic chemistry where ionic liquids can replace conventional solvents. For example, considerable efforts have been made for the Knoevenagel reaction using mild Lewis acid catalysts like LiBr, KI or water, partly in solvent-free reactions or, for instance, in THF, TEAA or MeCN [186-193]. The Doebner modification could be carried out with BiCl<sub>3</sub> as a mild catalyst or in ionic liquids such as [bmim]BF<sub>4</sub> or [bpyr]BF<sub>4</sub> for synthesizing unsaturated carboxylic acids [194]. The Michael addition could be recently performed in isopropyl alcohol with (S)-pyrrolidine sulfonamide, as a catalyst [195] and with copper nanoparticles in 1-Htetrazole-5-acetic acid [196], both at room temperature. The Biginelli and the Hantzsch reaction, both multi-component tandem or cascade reactions, could also be recently modified in view of green chemistry [197]. Additionally, efforts have been made to carry out the Biginelli reaction in solvent-free conditions with mild Lewis acid catalysts [198]. As a recent example, tri-(2-hydroxyethyl) ammonium acetate was used as a catalyst under microwave conditions (200W, 4-8min) as well as under conventional

conditions at 90 °C for 5-8h [199]. As products of the Hantzsch synthesis are of interest in clinical use, some green chemistry process contributions have been made [200].

Other important standard procedures in organic chemistry which can be modified to comply with the requirements of green chemistry are the Mannich reaction (Fig 29), Reformatsky reaction, Strecker reaction, Barbier reaction, Pechmann reaction, Henry reaction and the Cannizzaro reaction [201].



**Fig 29** Modified Mannich reaction with [bmim][NTf<sub>2</sub>]. [B] Modified Reformatsky reaction with [EtDBU][OTf].

Beginning with imidazolium cations, pyridinium, ammonium, phosphonium, thiazolium, and triazolium species are the main cationic component. Generally, all above-mentioned cations may be joined with weakly coordinating anions, though not all weakly coordinating anions form RTILs. General examples are triflimide, hexafluorophosphate, tetrafluoroborate, triflate, and dicyanamide. Among them hexafluorophosphate, tetrafluoroborate have been mostly explored. It is important to mention that they should be treated with great care because they can be easily hydrolyzed to phosphate and boric acid.

Various types of nanoparticles have been synthesized in ILs using chemical reduction in which numerous used reducing agents such as organic (ascorbic acid), gases (H<sub>2</sub>), and inorganic (NaBH<sub>4</sub>) are available. The other important process is decomposition of metal carbonyls with metal atoms already in the zero-valent oxidation states. Moreover, to the use of ILs in conventional thermal heating, there is an attractive trend to combine ILs

with more environmentally beneficial heating technologies, i.e. microwave and ultrasound. Since their essential characteristics are according to the principles of green chemistry and also for their unexpected synergetic effects resulting in the enhancement in reaction abilities, in terms of the product quality and reaction rate and time. Due to their high ionic charges, polarities, and dielectric constant, ILs are capable to efficiently absorb the microwave energy resulting into a quick and homogeneous temperature raise in the reaction systems without the need for heat transfer. Consequently, reaction time and energy consumptions could be considerably diminished. Furthermore, the harvesting of nuclei could be attainable at the early phase of the reaction, favoring the generation of nanoparticles with small and narrow size distribution. Synthesis of uniform sized metal nanoparticles (5 nm) from their metal carbonyl precursors dissolved in ILs using microwave irradiation. The reaction efficiency (10 W, 3 min) was found superior to that of UV-photolysis (1000W, 15min) or conventional thermal heating (250 °C, 6–12 h). In order to short out dispersion of the nanoparticles during synthesis another environmental friendly combination, ILs/low-frequency ultrasonic irradiations could be used. Implementation of such systems greatly not only reduces the reaction time but also the crystallization degree of the resulting nanoparticles was often improved as compared with traditional methods.

### 6.1 MCRs in ionic liquids

Ionic liquids are capable to produce an internal pressure and encourage the union of reactants in the solvent void during the activation process. Consequently the ILs are fairly appropriate for MCRs where the entropy of the reaction is reduced in the transition state. ILs creates a nice prospect for governing the selectivity of MCRs owing to their excellent physical properties. A three-component reaction of malononitrile aromatic aldehyde and 2-(2,3-dihydrothiochromen-4-ylidene) malononitrile, where the product might be transformed by changing the anion of ILs. High yields of products at room temperature with [BMIm]BF<sub>4</sub> have been reported by numerous researchers [202-204]. No reaction happened in the absence of ZrCl<sub>2</sub>, NaNH<sub>2</sub>, [BMIm]BF<sub>4</sub> or elements of these under sonication. Using ethyl acetate the reactions were completed within 20 min and the products can be separated by extraction. It was observed that the residual [BMIm]BF<sub>4</sub> was retrieved and reused in subsequent reactions with a measured reduction in the activity.

Good to excellent yields of products have been reported for a four-component, one-pot reaction of aromatic aldehyde, cyclohexanone, malononitrile, and amines performed in a basic ionic liquid [BMIm]OH. An effective one-pot multicomponent synthesis of 2,4-diamino-5-pyrimidine carbonitrile derivatives using [BMIm]OH ionic liquid as a base

under microwave irradiation (100 W) at 60 °C has been reported. The ionic liquid could be recycled up to five cycles in the reaction medium without substantial loss in the yields. Some three-component reactions of substituted hydrazines, 1,3-diketones and benzaldehydes have also been executed in [BMIm]BF<sub>4</sub> by using Yb(OTf)<sub>3</sub> as a catalyst [205]. Such scheme provided an effective and green route to generate the 2-substituted tetrahydroindazolone derivatives. Yb(OTf)<sub>3</sub>/[BMIm]BF<sub>4</sub> is an efficient and green source for the synthesis of β-acetamido ketones and 2-substituted tetrahydroindazolone derivatives [206].

A one-pot synthesis of 6-aminouracils via in situ produced ureas and cyanoacetylureas (Fig 30) 1,1,3,3-tetramethylguanidine acetate ([TMG]Ac), ILs as a recyclable solvent and catalyst [207]. The IL was recovered under reduced pressure and found reusable up to five cycles. The ([TMG]Ac), catalyze different sequential steps in one pot reaction, that not only cuts the reaction time but also improves the financial and environmental features of reaction process.

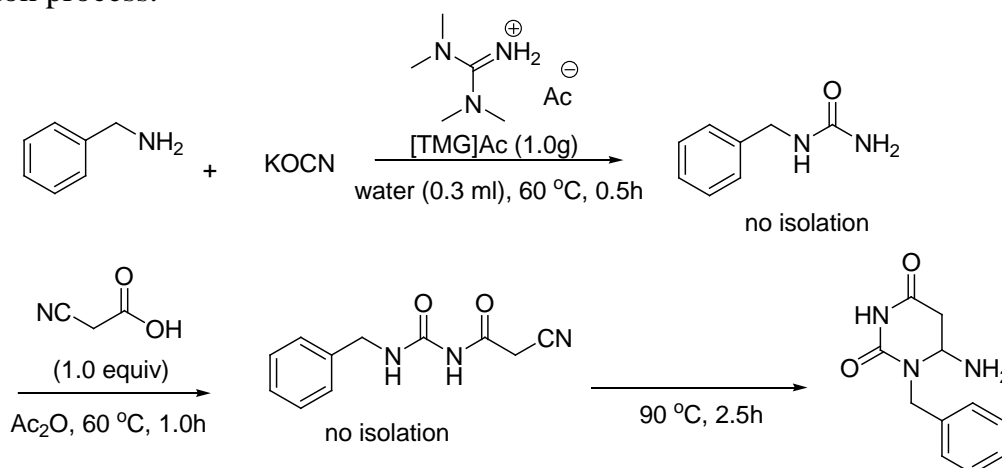
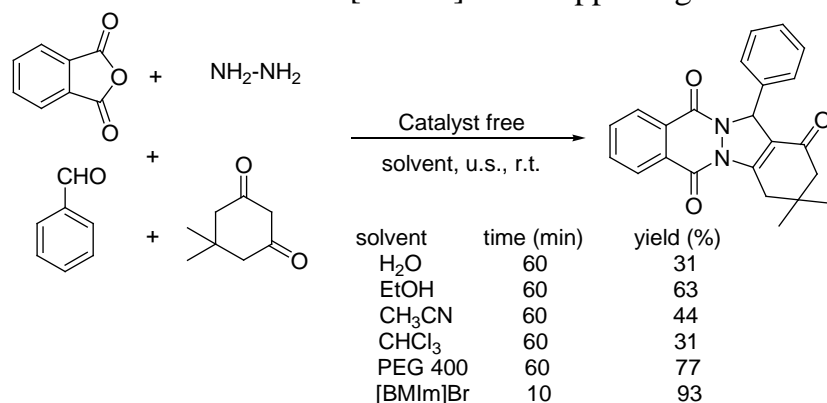


Fig 30. One pot synthesis of 6-aminouracil in [TMG]Ac

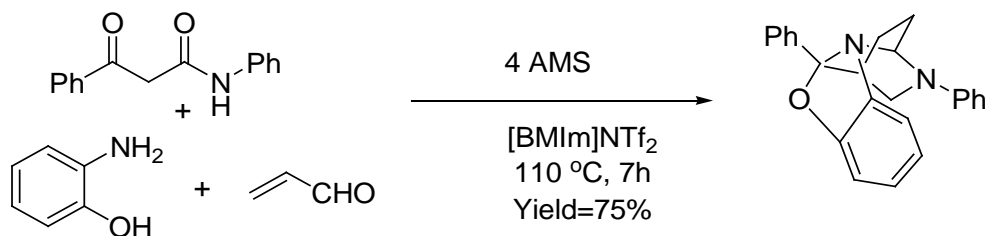
Hasaninejad et al. [208] reported a one-pot effective method for the production of 1,2,4,5-substituted imidazoles under simple heating and microwave irradiation using [BMIm]Br. Similar reactions in different solvents such as CH<sub>3</sub>CN, DMSO, DMF and toluene, yield little amount of product, revealed the presence of a great promoting effect of [BMIm]Br in this reaction. It was concluded that [BMIm]Br performs two tasks: (i) activates the aldehyde carbonyl electrophilically via hydrogen bonding to the carbonyl oxygen; and (ii) improving the nucleophilicity of the amine over deprotonation of the N–

H bond. A straightforward and an efficient, three-component reaction of alkynes, aldehydes, and amines using ionic liquid under microwave irradiation was reported for the synthesis of quinolines by use of the  $\text{Yb}(\text{OTf})_3$ -catalyzed by [186]. The catalyst and the  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{BF}_4$  ionic liquid was found reusable up to four cycles deprived of significant loss of its catalytic activity.  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{BF}_4$  and  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{Br}$  as a recyclable medium were also proved to be a suitable medium for high yield [209-212]. The similar  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{BF}_4$  has also credentials for efficient preparation of a spiro[4H-pyran-oxindole] heterocycle  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{BF}_4$  was a suitable medium for good to excellent yields of product in three-component reaction of aldehydes, 1-naphthylamine and barbituric acid and two-step excellent yields synthesis of 4(1H)-quinolones in ionic liquids [213-215]. Shekouhy and Hasaninejad [216] synthesized good yields of 2H-indazolo[2,1-b]phthalazinetriones by reaction of an aldehyde, phthalic anhydride, hydrazinium hydroxide, and dimedone under ultrasonic irradiation in  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{Br}$  (Fig 31). Though same product could be obtained with other solvents under the same circumstances but yield was relatively poor indicating the key role of both cation and anion of  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{Br}$  in supporting the reaction.



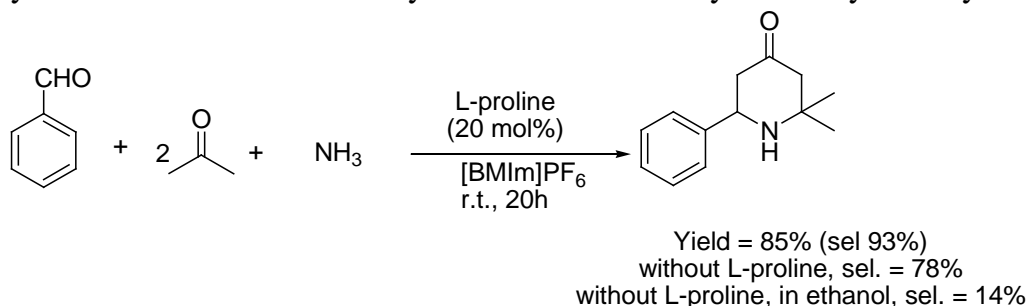
*Fig 31 Four component reaction of aldehyde, phthalic anhydride, hydrazinium hydroxide and dimedone in different solvents*

Constantieux et al. [217] synthesized efficiently the novel heterocyclic complex with the reaction of  $\beta$ -ketoamide, acrolein and 2-aminophenol in different ionic liquids (Fig 32).



*Fig 32 Three component reaction of beta-ketoamide, acrolein and 2-aminophenol in ionic liquid*

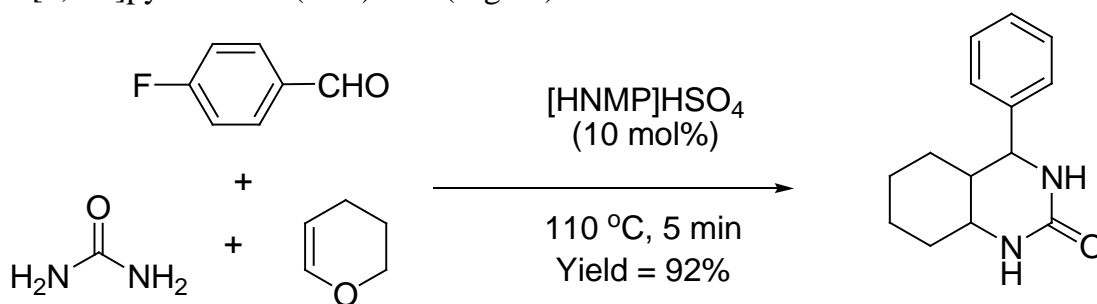
Hitherto, the equivalent reaction has been achieved in toluene but replacing toluene with recycled and reusable ionic liquid [BMIm]NTf<sub>2</sub> not only provided competitive yields as well correspondingly improved the reaction rate. Dabiri et al. [218] obtained 4-Substituted-spiro-1,2-dihydroquinazolines derivatives in the presence of 1-methylimidazolium trifluoroacetate ([HMIm]TFA) that played dual role of catalyst and solvent. [HMIm]TFA was recyclable (n=3) with significant activity and unglued easily by modest extraction. Soleimani et al. [219] synthesized high reaction yields of benzo[b][1,4]oxazines with recyclable [BMIm]Br under mild conditions and at ambient temperature. The one-pot MCR of anthranilic acid, carboxylic acid and aniline to give high yields of 4(3H)-quinazolinones run well in presence of [BMIm]BF<sub>4</sub> under ultrasound irradiation [220]. Xu et al. [221] observed [BMIm]PF<sub>6</sub> as an proficient and recyclable medium for extremely chemoselective preparation of 2,2-dimethyl-6-substituted 4-piperidones (Fig 33). Here, [BMIm]PF<sub>6</sub> also considerably boosts the chemoselectivity via formation of imine that resulted in the privileged manifestation of Mannich reaction over aldol reaction. Moreover, the ionic phase comprising L-proline catalyst may have considerable reactivity and chemoselectivity over recyclability.



*Fig 33. Chemoselective synthesis of 2,2-dimethyl-6-substituted 4-piperidones in ionic liquid.*



Furthermore, Brønsted-acidic functional groups such as  $\text{SO}_3\text{H}$  into the cations or anions enhanced the acidities and water miscibility of ionic liquids. Consequently, Brønsted-acidic ionic liquids e.g., PEG1000-based dicationic acidic (PEG1000-DAIL) have been used as highly effectual and green catalysts for extensive research as substitutes for  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ,  $\text{HF}$ , and  $\text{AlCl}_3$  in chemical processes [222] PEG1000-DAIL were efficiently recoverable (simple decantation) and recyclable ( $n=10$ ) with achievement of significant catalytic activity. 2,4,5-trisubstituted imidazoles was synthesized by using a basic ionic liquid,  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{OH}$  [223-225]. One-pot reactions of 2-naphthol, aldehydes and 1,3-cyclohexanediones continued very well to give good yields of 8,9,10,12-tetrahydrobenzo[a]xanthen-11-one derivatives in catalytic presence of Brønsted acidic dialkylimidazolium with  $\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ -functionalization [226-227]. The alike reaction can also be accomplished with neutral ionic liquid and IBX or p-TSA[228-229]. Several acidic ionic liquids based on Polyethylene glycol dication or  $\text{SiO}_2$ -supported  $\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ -functionalised benzimidazolium, brønsted-acidic  $[(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{SO}_3\text{HMIm}]\text{HSO}_4$  and  $[(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{SO}_3\text{HPy}]\text{HSO}_4$  were used as catalyst under solvent-free conditions [230-233]. Hajipour et al., (2011) [234] used N-(4-sulfonic acid) butyl triethyl ammonium hydrogen sulfate ( $[\text{TEBSA}]\text{HSO}_4$ ) as an effective and recyclable catalyst for generating various pyrimidinone derivatives in good to excellent yields.  $[\text{BMIm}]\text{Br}$  with  $\text{TMSCl}$  (additive) can also be employed for the reaction [235]. However, large amounts of catalysts were used in those reactions. Mirzai and Valizadeh [236] stated a novel nitrite-functionalized dialkylimidazolium ionic liquid (IL-ONO) as a weak Lewis base catalyst for the productive yields in Biginelli reaction. The same reaction can also be resourcefully catalyzed with an equivalent phosphinite ionic liquid (IL-OPPh<sub>2</sub>) [237] Recently, Brønsted acidic ionic liquid, 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone hydrosulfate ( $[\text{HNMP}]\text{HSO}_4$ ), as catalyst were employed for solvent-free synthesis of several derivatives of 1H-pyrano[2,3-d]pyrimidin-2(8aH)-one (Fig 34).



*Fig 34. Three component reaction of aromatic aldehydes, urea or thiourea and 3,4-dihydro-2H-pyran in ionic liquid*

Li et al. [238] used [BMIm]BF<sub>4</sub> in high yield Biginelli-like reaction of aldehydes and 5-aminotetrazole with ethyl 4,4,4-trifluoro-3-oxobutanoate. To find an efficient ionic liquid for Biginelli-like reaction, Chakraborti et al. [239] have investigated the catalytic efficiency of [BMIm]-based compounds. They concluded that both counter anion and 1,3-disubstituted imidazolium moiety are important for catalytic activity and out of that [BMIm]MeSO<sub>4</sub>, was selected with a very small amount of the ionic liquid (1 mol%) at 100 °C for 30 min to give good yields of dihydropyrimidinones. However, the postulated mechanism for [BMIm]MeSO<sub>4</sub> might be diverse from the reactions occurred in aqueous media.

Fang et al. [240] synthesized  $\alpha$ -amino phosphonates with a geminal dicationic ionic liquid such as N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-N,N'-dipropanesulfonic acid ethylenediammonium hydrogen sulfate ([TMEDAPS]HSO<sub>4</sub>). Advantage of process was efficient as well as recyclable catalyst and room temperature. Recently, synthesis of  $\alpha$ -aminophosphonates was performed with efficient and eco-friendly catalyst of choline chloride· ZnCl<sub>2</sub>. High yield of 2,4,6-triarylpyridines (Kröhnke pyridines) was obtained with reusable catalyst of 3-methyl-1-(4-sulfonylbutyl)imidazolium hydrogen sulfate [HO<sub>3</sub>S-(CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>4</sub>MIm]HSO<sub>4</sub> under solvent-free surroundings [241]. Concluded facts included the reusable catalyst (after simple work-up) with insignificant decline of their activity. [(CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>4</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>HPy]HSO<sub>4</sub> as catalyst was also used in high productive reactions performed [242]. Fang et al. [243] used original functionalized 3-(N,N-dimethyldodecylammonium) propanesulfonic acid hydrogen sulfate ([DDPA]HSO<sub>4</sub>) for Mannich-type reaction to give good yields of various  $\beta$ -amino carbonyl compounds at room temperature. Mannich reaction (asymmetric and direct) also go on well with [BMIm]PF<sub>6</sub>. Equivalent enantioselectivities was even achieved by siloxy serine organocatalyst in [BMIm]PF<sub>6</sub> on three times recycle [244]. [BHP-OMe]Br can promote diastereoselective reaction to give good to excellent yields of products in water and revealed good reusability at least in four following reactions.

## 7. Ephemeral solvents or deep eutectic solvents

Ephemeral solvents are created only during the reaction by addition of organic salt with an H-bond donor followed by mingling them at raised temperature to get consistent liquid forms e.g., choline chloride and urea [33, 245]. They have properties parallel to ILs except synthesis because the method for preparation of DESs is very unpretentious and cheap. DESs are considered eco-friendly solvent though toxicity and biocompatibility are individual components dependent [34-37]

## 7.1 Natural DESs

They are low melting mixtures or “natural hydrotropic mixtures” with “natural” or of “biological origin” and used as solubilizers in biological systems, especially in plants [246]. DESs are liquid at low temperature and frequently mixed with a substantial amount of water [247-248] e.g., typical mixture of malic acid-choline chloride-water (molar ratio of 1:1:2). The mixture of malic acid-choline chloride displays significant depression in melting point while water (cosolvent) reduced viscosity. Association of these three indicated the solubilization of malic acid and choline chloride with water. For plant extraction practices, these ternary mixtures of NADESs with water are most valued and useful, and hence, considered as ‘designer solvents’. Adeyemi et al. (2017) [249] investigated the viability of amine based DESs (Monoethanolamine, diethanolamine and methyldiethanolamine) for carbon capture. Results revealed that amine-based DESs have much higher absorption capacity than that of both aqueous amine (30 wt%) and conventional DESs. Additionally, broadening of the IR peak corresponding to O–H and N–H stretching specified the formation of H-bonds between choline chloride and – monoethanolamine (1:6) before CO<sub>2</sub> absorption.

## 7.2 Hydrotropes

Neuberg 2009, [250] coined the term for amphiphilic compounds that showed increased solubility for frugally soluble organic compounds in water [32] e.g., ternary macroscopically uniform mixture of water, hydrotrope and hydrophobic compound at any compositions.

## 8 Switchable solvents

In 2010, Jessop et al. [251] used the term of “switchable solvents” for water soluble or hydrophobic solvent depending on the presence or absence of CO<sub>2</sub> e.g., water enamidine systems. Because of reversible and tuned process (by controlling air and CO<sub>2</sub> pressure) a hydrophobic water-immiscible phase can be temporarily produced and removed on completion of reaction. Moreover, non-polar organic product can also be collected by separation from hydrophilic solvent i.e., simple isolation of the product. In addition, uncomplicated recovery of solvent from water by eliminating carbonate from the reaction mixture was also advantage of those solvents. Only few solvents are considered green but they are clever system for development of green and solvent systems. Temperature can also be used instead of CO<sub>2</sub> [252] in water/IL mixtures. Tetrapentylammonium bromide (Pe<sub>4</sub>NBr) is showed remarkable phase behavior when mixed with water at close to 100 °C and splited into water-rich and organic phase in equilibrium. Hence, organic compound can be dissolved in latter phase and at the end of the reaction, the hydrophobic

phase can be easily taken out simply by cooling down. Salt precipitated out without polluting the water phase. However, salts may have bromide that is undesirable for industrial processes.

Bergbreiter et al. [253] used monophasic solvent polymer mixture near immiscible and separated the phase by simply addition of a small amount of solvent. Ludmer et al. [254] developed temperature induced “sediments remediation phase transition extraction” coupled with a phase transition cycle. The mixture has characteristics of the green solvents like water, ethanol and ethyl acetate. Hence, it was successfully used to depollute heavily contaminated sludge.

## **9. Organic Carbonates**

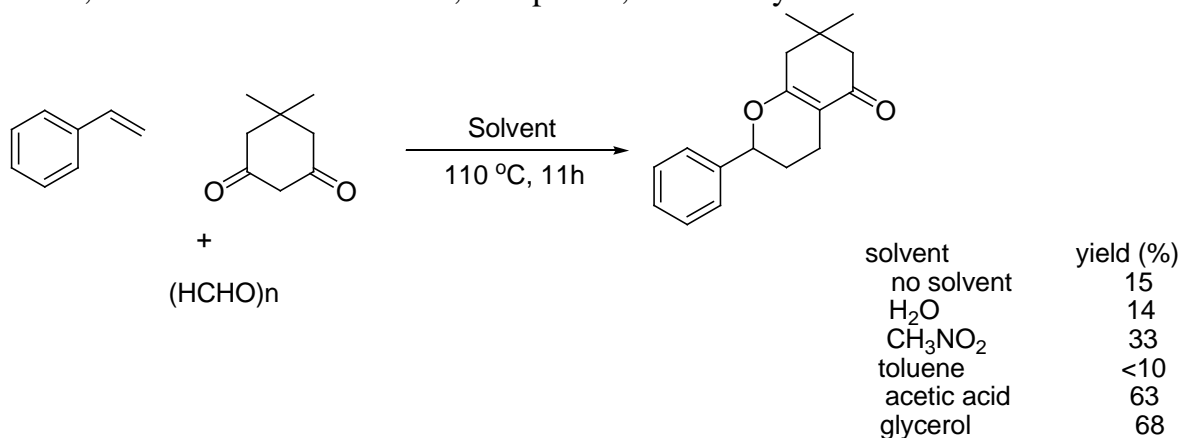
Organic carbonates (open chain and cyclic esters of carbonic acids) are easily available in large amounts, inexpensive, possess low (eco) toxicity and are completely biodegradable. They are widely used for extraction purposes, pharmaceutical and medical applications, and also in batteries. Cyclic carbonates fulfill the requirements of green solvents which have low flammability, volatility, wider temperature range in the liquid state and low toxicity. Especially, carbonate of propylene (PC) is an aprotic, highly dipolar solvent with low viscosity and a very large liquid state range (mp.  $-49\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ , bp.  $243\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) [255]. Since PC has a high molecular dipole moment (4.9 D) it is susceptible to microwave irradiation and can be considered a very interesting solvent for microwave assisted organic synthesis, which unfortunately has been hardly investigated yet [256].

Rhodium-catalyzed asymmetric hydrogenations of some usually employed functionalized olefins (20) were carried out in propylene carbonate, butylene carbonate, and conventional solvents for comparison. Both carbonates showed similar or better results than “standard” reagents, such as MeOH, THF, and  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ . Butylene carbonate even enhanced enantioselectivities at longer reaction times compared to propylene carbonate [256].

## **10. Biosolvents**

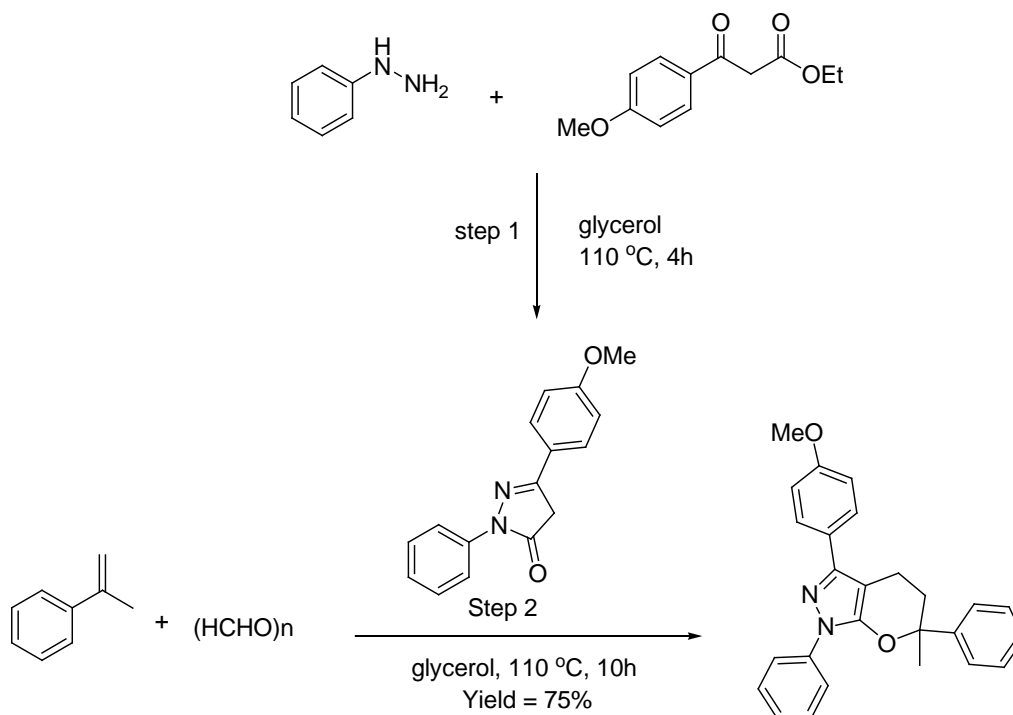
Biosolvents (esters of naturally occurring acids and fatty acids, terpenic compounds, bioethanol, isosorbide, glycerol and derivatives) offer the advantage of being produced from renewable sources such as vegetable, animal or mineral raw materials [257]. Many biobased solvents are approved by governmental legislations for use. They are already widely used in cosmetics, cleaning agents, paint, inks, and agricultural chemicals [257-258].

Bio-based solvents have successfully been employed in multicomponent reactions with seemingly synergistic effects. Condensation of dimedone, formaldehyde, and styrene in glycerol as solvent with superior yields of product compared to standard solvents ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{NO}_2$ , toluene, acetic acid). The authors concluded that glycerol exercises a promoting effect on the oxo-Diels-Alder reaction of the intermediate methylenedimedone with styrene due to its polar and protic properties. Glycerol was proven to be an indispensable reaction medium, providing excellent results in multicomponent reactions [259]. Quan et al. [260] reported the promoting effect of glycerol combined with a polystyrene-poly(ethylene glycol) (PS-PEG) resin supported sulfonic acid catalyst in Biginelli reaction, and the reaction of amide, 2-naphthol, and aldehydes.



*Fig 35 Three component of dimedone, formaldehyde and styrene in glycerol*

Due to synergistic properties of glycerol, MCRs can go on well with greater selectivity than that in other systems. Of late, glycerol was found to be a vital solvent for one-pot sequential reaction of styrenes  $\beta$ -ketone esters, formaldehyde and arylhydrazines. Glycerol has unique ability for encouraging an electrophilic alkylation of carbonyl functional group [258]. Good yields of products were obtained via hydroxymethylation of formaldehyde with  $\beta$ -ketosulfone in mixture of biosolvents (meglumine and gluconic acid 50 wt%) while low yield in other solvent systems showed the capability of biosolvents used [258].



*Fig 36. One pot step sequential reaction of arylhydrazines, beta-ketone esters, formaldehyde and styrenes.*

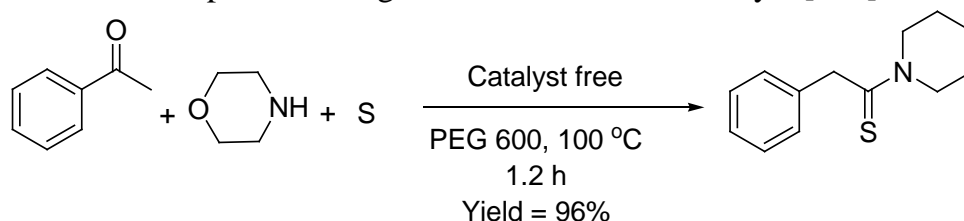
The formed hydroxymethylation product is assumed to further react with a nucleophile. Based on this, one-pot stepwise reactions of  $\beta$ -ketosulfone with formaldehyde have been developed in this binary mixture. These developed bio-based mixture of chemicals provided the control on selectivity of some MCRs of formaldehyde. Due to their hydrophilic nature, bio-based mixture could be separated after extraction of organic products and reused ( $n=4$ ) with considerable activity. The combination of Glycerol with PS-PEG-supported sulfonic acid catalyst acted as green solvent for encouraging performance in several MCRs like Biginelli reaction and the reaction of amide, aldehydes and 2-naphthol.

## 11. Polyethylene glycol polymers (PEGs)

PEGs are nonvolatile, cheap, easily available, low toxicity, reusable, biodegradable and stable to acid, base and also to high temperature. PEGs are easily soluble in fairly polar solvents and reported insoluble in isopropanol and diethyl ether. This exceptional property facilitates the retrieval of PEGs by precipitation and filtration. Therefore, such solvents PEG and poly(propylene glycol) (PPG) have received great attention as novel solvents

for various catalytic processes. Both the solvents are comparatively cheap and freely available materials. PPG and PEG are well accepted for their use in beverages while PPG was used as a solvent in pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries. In the biphasic catalysis the combinations of PEG or PPG with, water or  $\text{scCO}_2$  were found as important system. Polyoxometalate catalysed aerobic oxidation of benzylic alcohols, Wacker oxidation of propylene to acetone and Heck reactions using PEG-200 and/or PEG-400 (the number refers to the average molecular weight), have been reported by several researchers. [261-263].

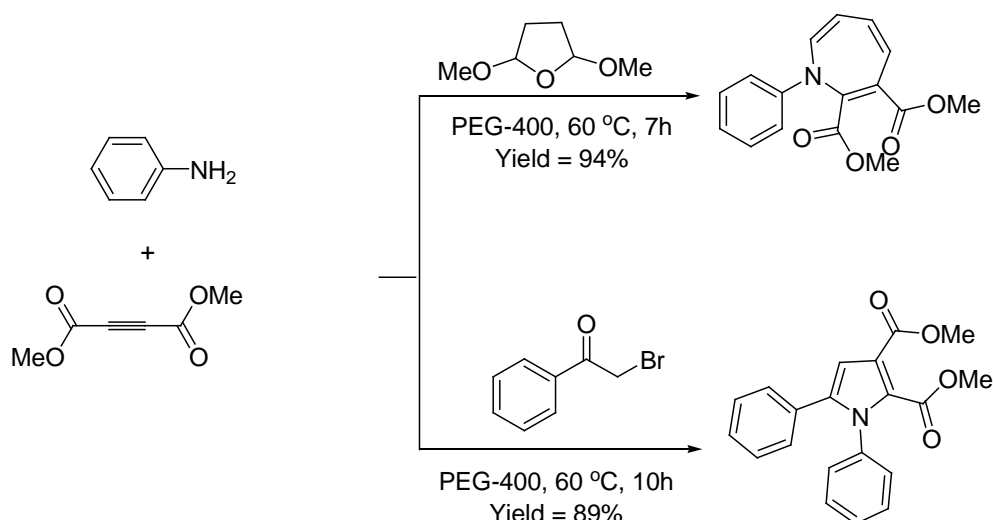
During the last decade, several named reactions have been performed using PEG as solvent or catalyst. Biginelli reaction was promoted by PEG-400 and it was found capable to generate 3,4-dihydropyrimidinones in high yields under neutral conditions [264]. High yields of thiomorpholides were generated via condensation of aryl alkyl ketones, sulfur and morpholine using PEG-600 as solvent/catalyst [265].



*Fig 37 Willgerodt Kindler reaction in PEG 600*

Kouznetsov et al. [266], Polyfunctionalized 2,4-diaryl-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroquinoline derivatives via Povarov reaction have been synthesized in short span of time and small amount of solvent in PEG-400. High yield of polyfunctionalized 2-pyridones from the reaction of acetophenone, aldehyde, ethyl cyanoacetate and ammonium acetate in PEG-600 have been reported [267]. PEG-400 was reported as low-cost-effective and reusable medium for the one-pot synthesis of N-substituted decahydroacridine-1,8-diones, making the process potentially viable [268]. Certain substituted acridines, pyrazole, Hantzsch 1,4-dihydropyridines and pyridine were synthesized in PEG-400 with or without using microwave irradiation ([269-272].

PEG has been showed to be an efficient medium for one-pot synthesis of N-substituted azepines from dialkylacetylene dicarboxylate, aniline and 2,5-dimethoxytetrahydrofuran and polysubstituted pyrrole derivatives under mild and catalyst-free conditions [273-274]. PEG-400 was found to provide high yield as compared to other solvents like acetonitrile, water, DMF and THF) under the similar reaction conditions, justifying the role of PEG solvent in execution of the reaction towards completion [275]



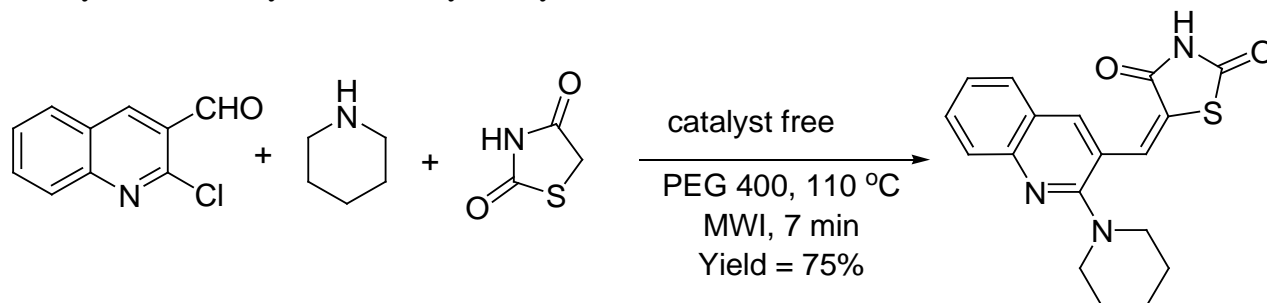
*Fig 38. Three component reactions of aniline and dialkyl acetylene-dicarboxylate in PEG-400*

Reactions of aromatic aldehydes, cyclohexanones and aniline (Mannich-type: one-pot three-component) was carried out in PEG-400 in conjunction with 2,4,6-trichloro-1,3,5-triazine as catalyst. Several organic carbamates were synthesized employing an efficient and green method using PEG-400 as both solvent and catalyst under ambient reaction conditions. Especially, the application of PEG could also reduce the alkylation of amine and the carbamate, resulted the improved selectivity toward the target carbamate. Kidwai et al. [268], reported synthesis of polysubstituted-tetrahydropyrimidines in PEG-400 within 45 min under mild reaction conditions. Similarly, high yields of thiazolidinone, imidazoles, and coumarins derivatives were generated in PEG-400 with or without assistance of microwave irradiation [276-279]. A mixture of 2-chloro-3-formylquinoline, piperidine and 2,4-thiazolidinedione yielded 5-[(2-(piperidin-1-yl)quinolin-3-yl)methylene]-2,4-thiazolidinedione under microwave irradiation in PEG-400 [280]. In this reaction, excess amount of piperidine was added so that it could act as base to neutralize the  $\text{HCl}$  (formed during the reaction).

Good to excellent yields several pyrazolophthalazinyl spirooxindoles has been established by using  $\text{NiCl}_2$  as catalyst in PEG-600 from one-pot three-component reaction of isatin, malononitrile or cyanoacetic ester, and phthalhydrazide under ordinary reaction conditions [281]. Reaction of isocyanides, dialkyl acetylenedicarboxylates and  $\alpha,\beta$ -unsaturated aldehydes goes well in PEG-400, yielding the corresponding styrylfuran



derivatives. A multicomponent reaction (Ugi-type) of heterocyclic amidines with aldehydes and isocyanides catalyzed by  $ZrCl_4$  in PEG-400 was also described [282].



*Fig 39. Three component reaction of 2-chloro-3-formyl quinoline, piperidine and 2,4-thiazolidinedione in PEG-400*

## 12. Use of green solvents in nanomaterials synthesis

In order to get rid of hazardous solvents/reducing agents like sodium borohydrides, hydrazine, and dimethylformamide), green methodology employing environmentally benign and renewable materials like water, ionic liquids, aqueous plants extract/surfactant are preferred. It is a more reliable, sustainable and bioinspired bottom-up approach. The use of solvents is to provide a medium for the dissolution of precursors in the medium, transferring of heat and reactants and dispersion of resulting nanoparticles. Moreover, industrial-scale generation of nanoparticles demands the assortment and design of green solvent substitutes to decrease and eradicate ecological risks. The benefits of green synthesis of nanomaterials comprise (1) Economical (2) Eco-friendliness and safety (3) reusability (4) easy altering of the grain size, morphology, and surface functionality (5) generation of relative stability (6) remarkable biocompatibility and (7) biodegradability. [283-285]. Chettri et al. [285] reported the green synthesis of Ag-RGO Nanohybrids using *Psidium guajava* leaves to extract as a surfactant and the resultant nanomaterial showed enhanced capacity in the detection of methylene blue (MB). *Prosopis cineraria* leaf extracts was used to synthesized Ag-Cu NPs which showed high antibacterial activity against microbial pathogen and cytotoxicity for human breast cancer cell line (MCF-7), in comparison to the individual Ag and Cu NPs [286]. Kolya et al. [287] reported a green synthesis of Ag nanoparticles using *Amaranthus gangeticus* Linn (Chinese spinach) leaf extract. The synthesized Ag NPs showed decent catalytic efficiency (more than 50% within 15 minutes) in the degradation of hazardous Congo red dye. Green synthesis of ZnO, CuO and ZnO/GO nanoparticles exhibited high photocatalytic activities [288-289]. Green synthesis of several nanomaterials such as

oxides of Zn, Cu, and Ni; ferrites of Ni–Cu–Mg, Ni–Cu–Zn and magnetic copper) was reported using gel, gum or plants. The catalytic efficiency of these NPs was evaluated for organic synthesis and in photocatalysis [290-293].

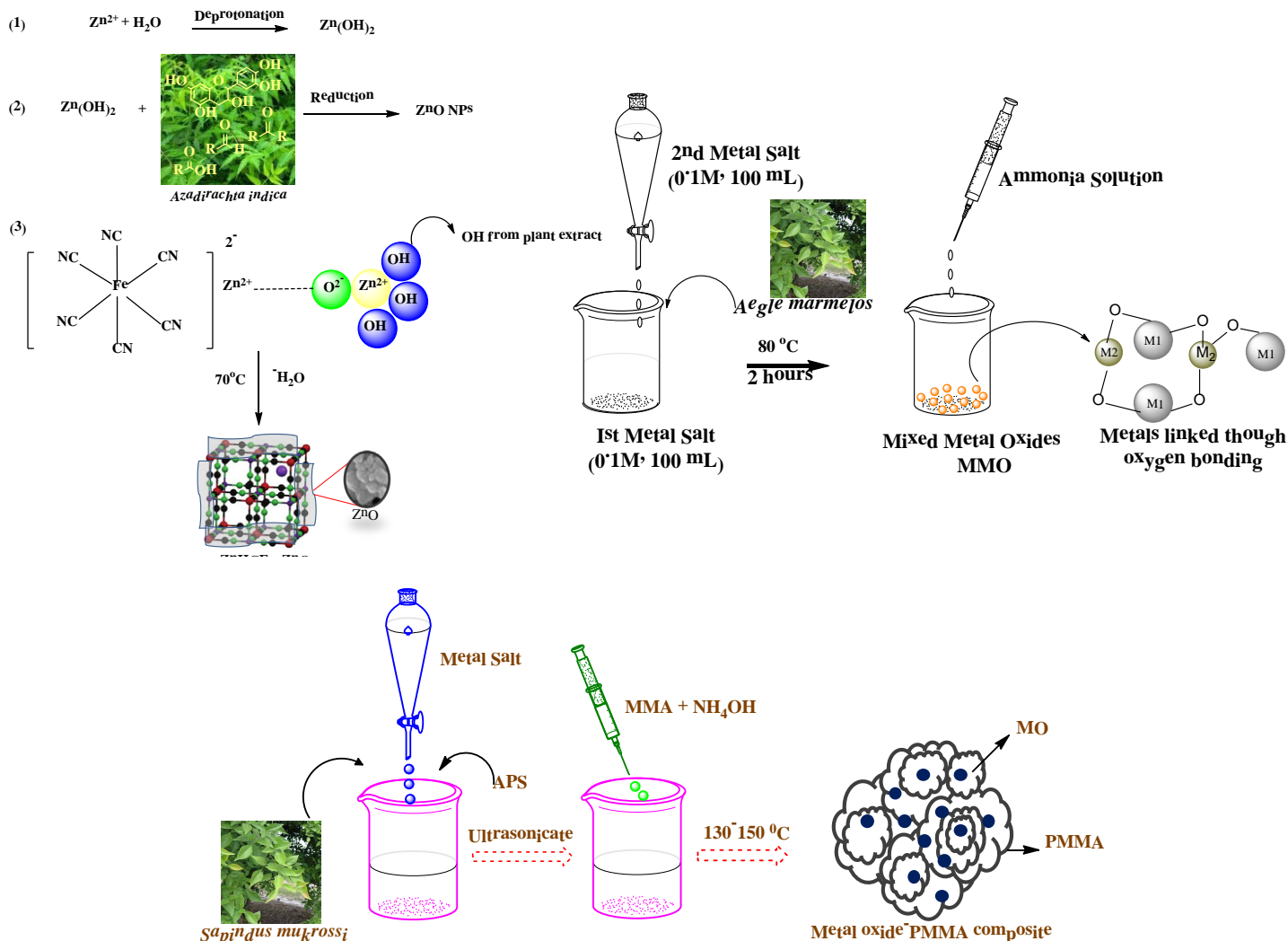


Fig. 40. Various green strategy for the synthesis of doped metal hexacyanoferrates, bimetallic oxides simple and doped with PMMA

Shanker and his research group [294-296, 298-317] synthesized nanomaterials of metal hexacyanometallates and metal oxides using aqueous extracts of natural surfactants like sapindus mucrossi, and Aegle marmelos and used them for the degradation of organic pollutants. Green synthesized double metal Fe/Pd NPs were reported being superior than

bared ones [318-319]. Green synthesized bimetallic oxides (BMO) with grain size 50 nm like NiCuO nanorods,  $\text{CuCr}_2\text{O}_4$  nanoflowers and  $\text{NiCrO}_3$  nanospheres were produced using Aegle marmelos leaf extract. Figure 40 showed synthetic strategy of BMO with A. marmelos used in different fields (medicinal, nutritional, commercial and environmental). Several natural products present in the leaves of A. marmelos are alkaloids, terpenoids and phenylpropanoids. Photodegradation of toxic phenols ( $1 \times 10^{-4}$  M) from water using mixed BMO nanostructures (15 g) was carried out at neutral pH. Crystalline nanocubes of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@ \text{ZnHCF}$  and  $\text{ZnO}@ \text{ZnHCF}$  nanocomposite were synthesized using water and plant extract of Azadirachta indica, a commonly found plant in India. A. indica consists of phytochemicals (benzoquinones) that reduce the interfacial tension to control the particle growth. Overall, green synthesized nanocomposites are cheap, reusable ( $n=10$ ) with properties of greater active sites, high surface activity, low band gap with charge separation and semiconducting nature.

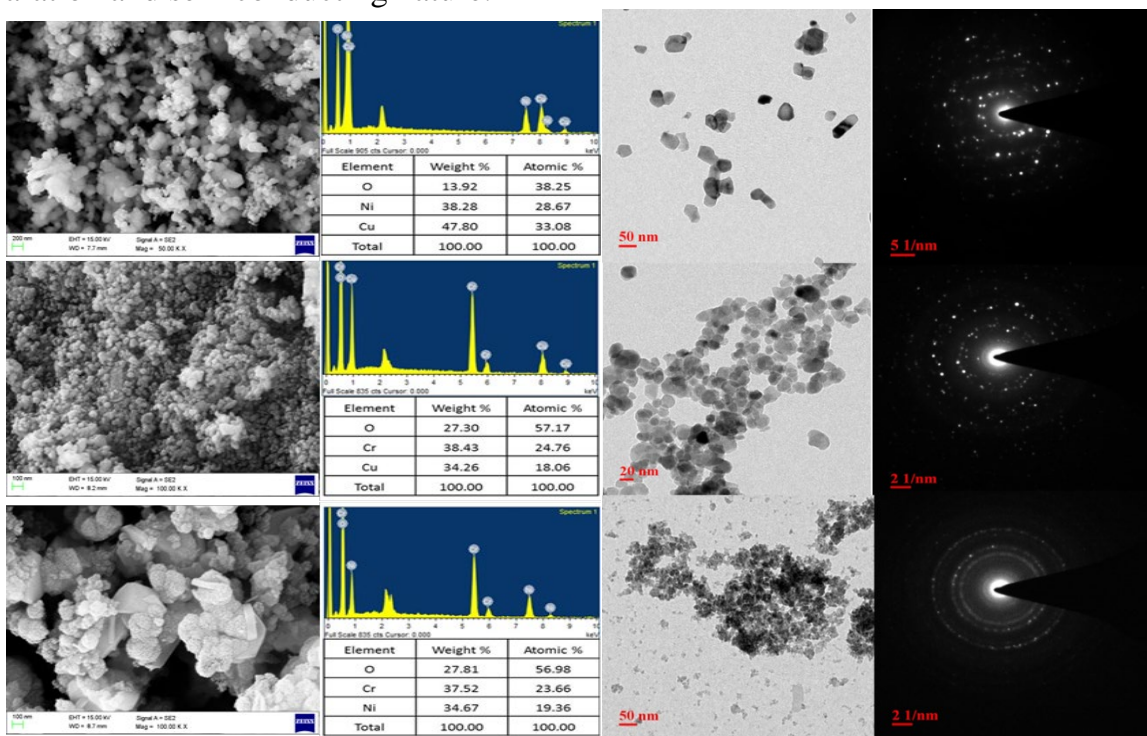


Fig. 41 FE-SEM and TEM images with SAED patterns of (a) Ni-CuO (b)  $\text{CuCr}_2\text{O}_4$  (c)  $\text{NiCrO}_3$  nanoparticles

Shahwan et al. [320] observed that green tea-iron iron nanoparticles were a better catalyst than Fe nanoparticles produced by borohydride reduction. Silver nanoparticles synthesized with Morinda tinctoria leaf extract degraded 100% of dye within thirteen

minutes. Highly crystalline sharp potassium zinc hexacyanoferrate nanocubes of ~100 nm and hexagonal, rod and spherical shaped iron hexacyanoferrate nanoparticles, size range: 10-60 nm were used for treatment of toxic PAHs (84-93%) at neutral pH under sunlight exposure.

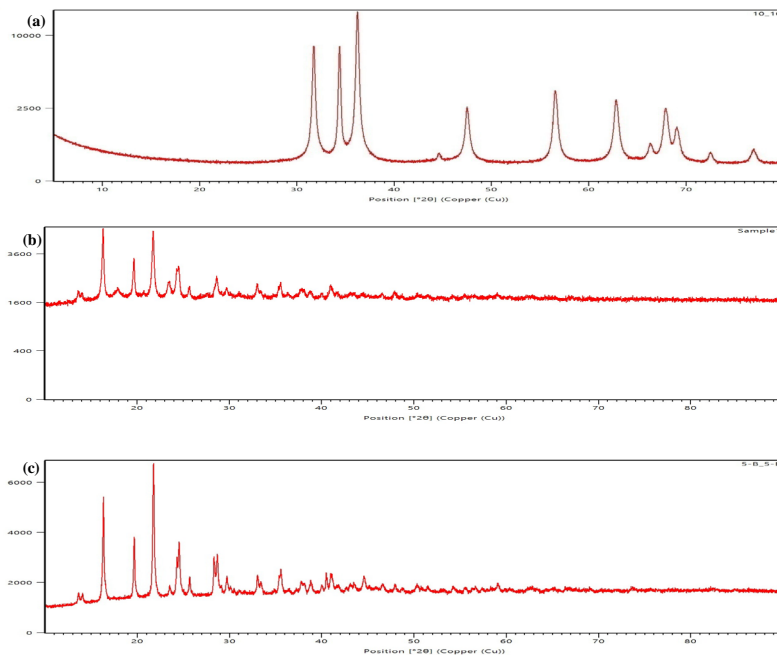


Fig 42. PXRD pattern of (a) ZnO, (b) ZnHCF and (c) ZnO@ZnHCF

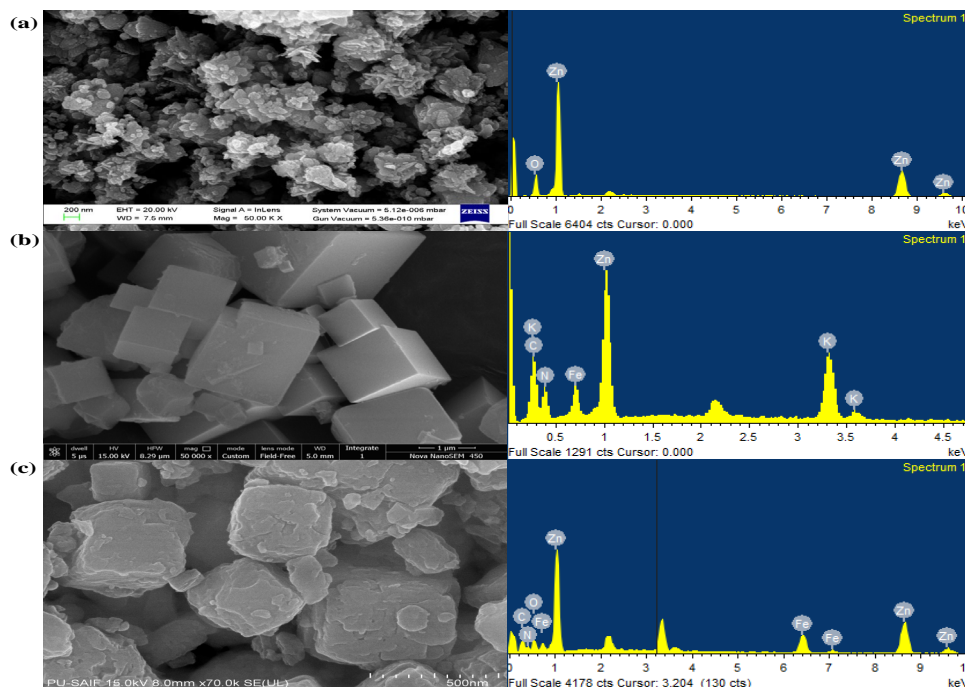
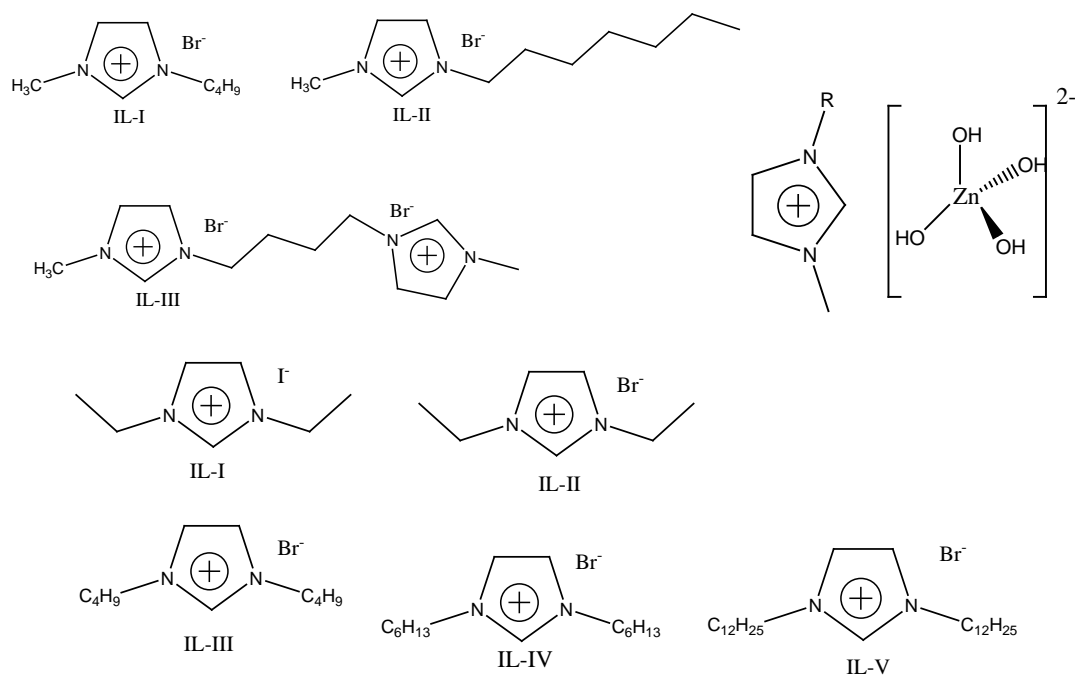


Fig.43FE-SEM image and EDS pattern of (a)ZnO, (b) ZnHCF and (c)ZnO@ZnHCF

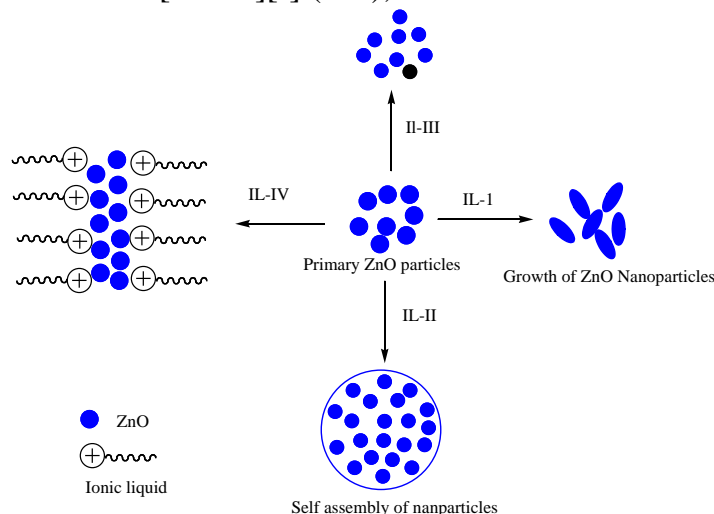
Sabbaghan et al. [321] synthesized distinct morphologies of ZnO NPs in water and imidazolium-based ionic liquids where strong hydrogen bonds formed between the hydrogen atom at position 2 of the imidazole ring and the oxygen atoms of O-Zn. Possible mechanism of generation showed that ZnO crystals are polar and their positive polar plane is rich in zinc, and the negative one is rich of O [322]. ILs have considerable impact on the morphology and structures of ZnO based on hydrogen bonds,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stack interactions, self-assembled mechanism and electrostatic attraction [323]. Bulky alkyl chain at position-1 of imidazole ring or using dicationic ionic liquid with a definite concentration results the more width of nano sheet (due to increase  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stack interactions) [324].

No effect on solvent (water, alcohol) was observed but 2D ZnO nanostructures can only be yielded by use of excess NaOH. This results in the change of interaction between ZnO surface and ionic liquids i.e. weakened the interaction between hydrogen and carbon atoms at position 2 of the imidazole ring. In contrast, the hydrogen bond formed between the hydrogen atom at position 2 of the imidazole ring and the oxygen atoms of O-Zn were enhanced, playing a crucial rule in the morphology of ZnO nanostructures [324].



*Fig. 44 Chemical structure of ionic liquids. Imidazolium combination with  $[Zn(OH)]^{2-}$  through the electrostatic attraction*

Sabbaghana et al. [325] synthesized ZnO nanostructures of distinct shape like nanocoral, spherical and nanosheet by the use of green synthesized imidazolium-based ILs and concluded that anion and cation of ionic liquids may affect the band gap and morphology of the zinc oxide NPs. bulkier alkyl chain at positions 1 and 3 of imidazole ring ionic liquid resulted in the nanosheet morphology. The ILs used in such reactions, were 1,3-Dihexylimidazolium bromide [DHIm][Br] (IL1), 1,3-Diethylimidazolium iodide [DEIm][I] (IL2), 1,3-Dibutylimidazolium bromide [DBIm][Br] (IL3), 1,3-Diethylimidazolium bromide [DEIm][Br] (IL4),

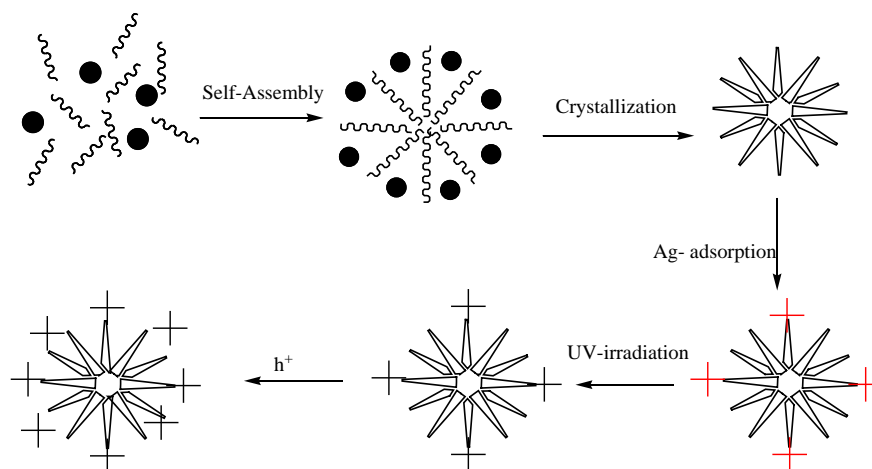


*Fig. 45 Chemical structure of ionic liquids and Schematic drawing of the possible mechanism for the formation of products*

Zhao et al. [326] performed photochemical synthesis of ZnO/Ag<sub>2</sub>O heterostructures by ILs-assistnace two ionic liquids named 1-dodecyl-3-methylimidazolium and bromide anions ILs [C12mim]<sup>+</sup>Br<sup>-</sup> (IL1) and triethylamine acetate (IL2) with enhanced visible light photocatalytic activity.

Well-ordered mesoporous SBA-15/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites (~0.1 nm) in varying ionic liquids (CMITf<sub>2</sub>N and CMIBF<sub>4</sub>) with and without isopropyl alcohol. CMIBF<sub>4</sub> significantly favors TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase crystalline phase without alcohol while CMITf<sub>2</sub>N slightly favored TiO<sub>2</sub> rutile crystalline phase. This ordered mesoporous structure was lost once the concentration of ionic liquids increases. Narrow pore size distribution with large surface areas up to 680 m<sup>2</sup>/g, pore volumes of up to 1.8 cm<sup>3</sup>/g and mean pore diameter of up to 10.4 nm was revealed by BET analysis.





*Fig.46 Structures of ionic liquids and Schematic illustration of the formation process for flower-like ZnO/Ag heterostructure*

### 13. Green solvents in analytical chemistry

Green analytical chemistry (GAC) [327-328] proposes many possibilities to avoid or apply alternative, more innocuous solvents in analytical extraction and chromatographic separation processes (mobile phase). The solventless processes (gas extraction and solid-phase microextraction) and alternative extracting solvents such as ionic liquids [329] supramolecular solvents [330], deep eutectic solvents [331] can be the basis of GAC. Supercritical fluids apart from contributing to greener extractions, make the chromatographic separations less environmentally problematic than liquid chromatography usually offers [332]. In spite of those advantages, organic solvents are still used because of convenience, less-substitute, analysts' habits or are applied in standard procedures. Though SSG focus on novel solvents (less toxic), usually ethers, esters or alcohols but not developed specifically for analytical chemists due to different waste solvents disposal practices and potentially increased occupational exposure during sample handling. LC (normal or reversed phase) uses large amounts of high-purity organic solvents. To make the process green, reversed phase LC (isopropyl alcohol in heptane or mixture of ethyl acetate with ethanol in heptane) [333] should be preferred than normal LC containing nonpolar and toxic solvents (dichloromethane). Ethanol, acetone and ethyl acetate, propylene carbonate or its mixture with ethanol, are preferentially applied over acetonitrile and methanol (more toxic) [334-336]. Ethanol or ethanol-water mixtures has drawback of relatively high viscosity [19] that can be removed at high temperature. Much effort is also done to increase the content of water in the mobile phase. Hexamethyldisiloxane, cyclopentyl methyl ether, 2-methyltetrahydrofuran and isopentyl acetate, D-limonene were preferred over chloroform

and aliphatic hydrocarbons in normal LC used in determination of nonpolar and nonvolatile lipids [337]. However, miniaturization of columns dimensions is required for reduce amount of mobile phase.

The greenness of solvents in extraction processes increase in the order— from chlorinated solvents, aromatic and aliphatic hydrocarbon, terpenes, alcohol and esters to water. Liquid phase microextraction like hollow fibre microextraction, dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction or single drop microextraction usually require only sub- milliliter amounts of organic solvents [338-339]. Bio-based organic solvents e.g., (bio)ethanol, alcohols, esters, ethers and ketones [340-341] should be used, instead of petrochemistry derived ones. Ethyl lactate, 2-methyltetrahydrofuran and cyclopentylmethyl ether have been used in extraction of total petroleum hydrocarbons in soil samples and membrane proteins, respectively [342-343]. D-limonene (derived from citrus waste) is gaining much attention in replacing more toxic and petroleum-derived toluene, n-hexane in microwave-assisted Soxhlet determination of fats and lipids[344-346].

Another application is extraction simvastatin from human blood plasma and large volume injection (100 mL) to HPLC [347]. Terpenes can be treated as environmentally problematic as they are characterized by high potential for tropospheric ozone formation and are relatively toxic to aquatic organisms [348]. More solutions have been developed in the area of bioactive substances extraction from plant material. These solutions need some more research to be applied in analytical sciences for assurance that solvent is of adequate purity and to characterize the extraction efficiency. Such solvents not yet widely applied in analytical extractions are ethyl lactate [349], glycerol, furfural, furans or chylene and others [350]. On the other hand, to some applications bio-based reagents applied in chemical analyses do not have to be refined. Similarly solvents for certain applications do not have to be ultrapure, under the condition that solvent contaminants are not analytes or interferences.

## Conclusion

Green solvents in one-pot chemical reactions (in-organic, organic, natural products, pharmaceutical and agrochemical or nanomaterials synthesis) are used to protect the environmental from toxicity from conventional organic solvents and provide the ideal basis for a sustainable chemical industry. Obtained results are similar and sometimes even better than these, resulting from conventional syntheses in organic solvents. The solvent-free processes as well as more efficient recycling protocols have some limitations. In environmentally benign solvent alternatives, water, fluorosolvents, ionic liquids, organic carbonates, supercritical carbon dioxide, as well as biosolvents have been employed. Water, as a cheap, abundantly available, nontoxic and nonflammable solvent



represents an ideal reaction medium for many processes, being mostly established in organometallic catalysis, hydroformylation processes and oxidations. Fluorous solvents and ionic liquids are attractive alternatives for performing reactions, which are not accomplishable in water or supercritical carbon dioxide. Organic carbonates, mostly used for extraction purposes and pharmaceutical and medical applications, feature characteristics like low (eco)toxicity, complete biodegradability as well as inexpensiveness. Supercritical carbon dioxide also exhibits outstanding characteristics for the utilization in Green Chemistry, such as the possibility to separate it from the resulting product by simple pressure release. Reaction rates are very high in scCO<sub>2</sub>, due to its intermediate properties, between gas and liquid state. Biosolvents, being produced from renewable sources are already widely used in cosmetics, cleaning agents, paint, inks, and agricultural chemicals and became to play an important role as an alternative to conventional solvents. A wide variety of heterocycles systems (different sizes and ring) and highly functionalized organic molecules can be readily synthesized through a combination of MCR strategies and unconventional green solvents. Using water and ionic liquids in metal-catalyzed MCRs also facilitates the recovery of metal catalysts. Some unique properties of unconventional solvents also allow the use of assisting technique, such as microwave irradiation.

There is a need to propose such a tool that would include assessment of solvents that are applied in analytical laboratories and are usually covered by pharmaceutical SSGs. The applications of bio-based solvents in strictly analytical applications are still limited.

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## Chapter 8

# Supercritical Carbon Dioxide in Esterification Reactions

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### Abstract

Green and sustainable solvents are gaining attention in the research institutes and industries owing to the minimal influence on the environment. The importance of supercritical fluids is associated with their “*tunable*” properties that could be easily altered by monitoring reaction parameters like pressure and temperature. The physical properties of supercritical fluids are in-between the gases and liquids. Therefore, ScCO<sub>2</sub> is used as an environmentally friendly solvent in various esterification reactions.

### Keywords

Green Solvent, Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, Esterification, Critical Temperature, Critical Pressure, Biocatalyst

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## 1. Introduction

With the increase in environmental hazards throughout the world, the focus has been extended to control the excess of utilization and disposal of harmful compounds by the industries [1,2]. The research community and chemical industries have immense interests on the sustainable solvents due to the solvents impact on disposal of harmful compounds, usage of energy, pollution, and contributions to the change in the climate [2-4]. Hence, the researchers are constantly in search of new and clean alternatives to existing methodologies [5-7]. One of the most obvious targeted areas is solvent usage.

Solvents are a major segment of organic air pollution. A variety of new and green reusable solvents have been therefore developed during the last few decades [8-10]. The focus is mainly on the environmental impact the solvent makes and the sustainability from which it is made [11,12]. Suitable solvents such as supercritical fluids (particularly CO<sub>2</sub>), eutectic solvents, switchable solvents, liquid polymers, reusable solvents, ionic liquids, perfluorinated hydrocarbons, and water are taken into account for replacing the conventional organic solvents, or alternatively reactions that could be performed without solvents [1,2,13-16].

Among these solvents, the supercritical carbon dioxide ( $\text{ScCO}_2$ ) as a polymerization solvent has been utilized in the production of the polystyrene and polymethylmethacrylate in addition of its use by DuPont (USA) in a pilot plant for the fluoropolymers production [1,10,17,18]. However, most important large-scale promising applications of  $\text{ScCO}_2$  are in spray painting and dry cleaning [1, 19-21].

Green chemistry is replacing more hazardous solvents or reagents with less harmful ones and which could be stated as well-designed chemistry owing to the following three factors [21].

- environmentally friendly
- chemically efficient and selective
- economically viable

*Table 1 Critical temperatures and critical pressures of different fluids.*

<i>Fluids</i>	<i>Critical Temperature</i> $T_c$ (°C)	<i>Critical Pressure</i> $P_c$ (MPa)	<i>Critical Density</i> (g/mL)
Carbon dioxide	31.10	7.40	0.448
Ammonia	132.4	11.25	0.235
Water	374.1	22.1	0.315
Nitrous oxide	36.5	71.7	0.45
Xenon	16.6	57.6	0.118
Methane	-82.1	45.8	0.2
Ethane	32.50	4.91	0.203
Propane	96.80	4.26	0.217
Pentane	196.6	33.3	0.232
Ethylene	9.21	49.7	0.218
Methanol	240.0	7.95	0.272
Ethanol	243.1	6.39	0.280
Isopropanol	235.6	5.37	0.270
Acetone	235.0	4.76	0.273

### 1.1. The concept of supercritical fluid (SCF)

The fluid containing only one phase above its critical temperature and pressure called supercritical fluid. For example, the  $\text{ScCO}_2$  has become a most utilized solvent due to its moderate critical temperature of  $31.1^\circ\text{C}$  and pressure of 73.8 bar, as shown in Figure 1. Fluid over its critical temperature and pressure exhibits good solvent power in most of the applications. Some of the supercritical fluids are listed in Table 1.

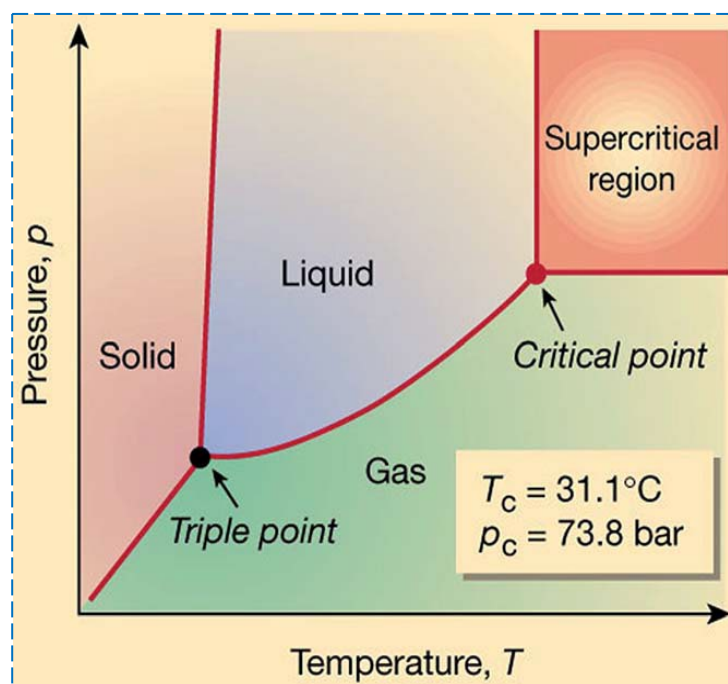


Figure 1 Phase diagram of  $\text{CO}_2$

### 1.2 What is a supercritical fluid?

In Figure 2, two separate phases that are a liquid phase and gaseous phase are evident. An increase in the temperature of the liquid phase converts into the gaseous phase. Further, an increase in the temperature results in the complete conversion of the liquid phase into the gaseous phase. In this case, there is no formation of the supercritical liquid phase.

A supercritical fluid (SCF) is a phase where the matter is compressible and behaves like a gas over its critical temperature ( $T_c$ ) and pressure ( $P_c$ ), which is not the case when the fluid is in a liquid phase (Figure 3). However, a SCF has a typical density of a liquid and hence its characteristics dissolving power. The main importance of SCFs is due to its “tunable” properties that can be simply altered by examining pressure and temperature. The fluids have a very good solvent power at more densities, *i.e.*, temperature close to their critical temperature and pressure greater than their critical pressure but extremely



poor solvent property at low densities i.e., a temperature equal or above their critical temperature, whereas the pressure at lower critical pressure of the solvent. That is why we cannot define the supercritical fluid as a liquid or a gas and this is a new phase of matter.

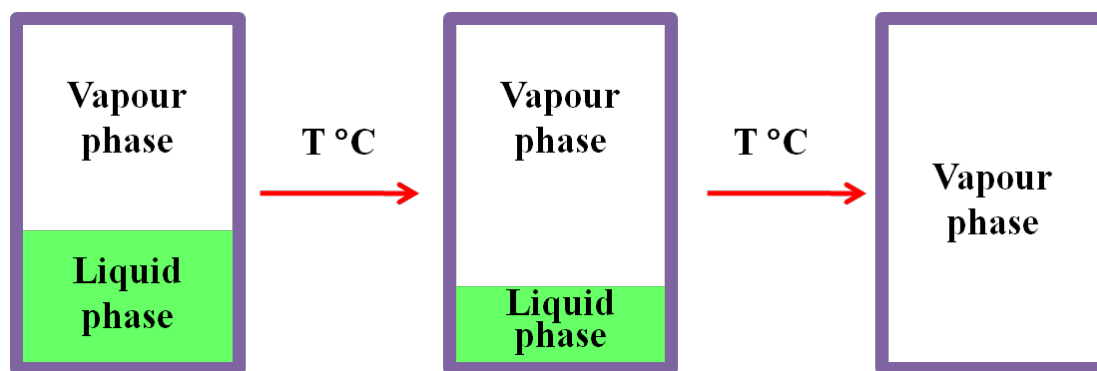


Figure 2 Heating results obeying usual gas laws

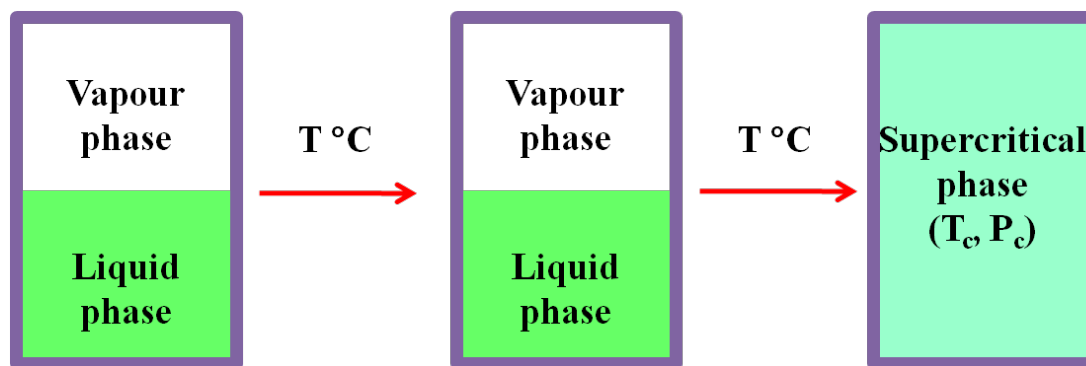
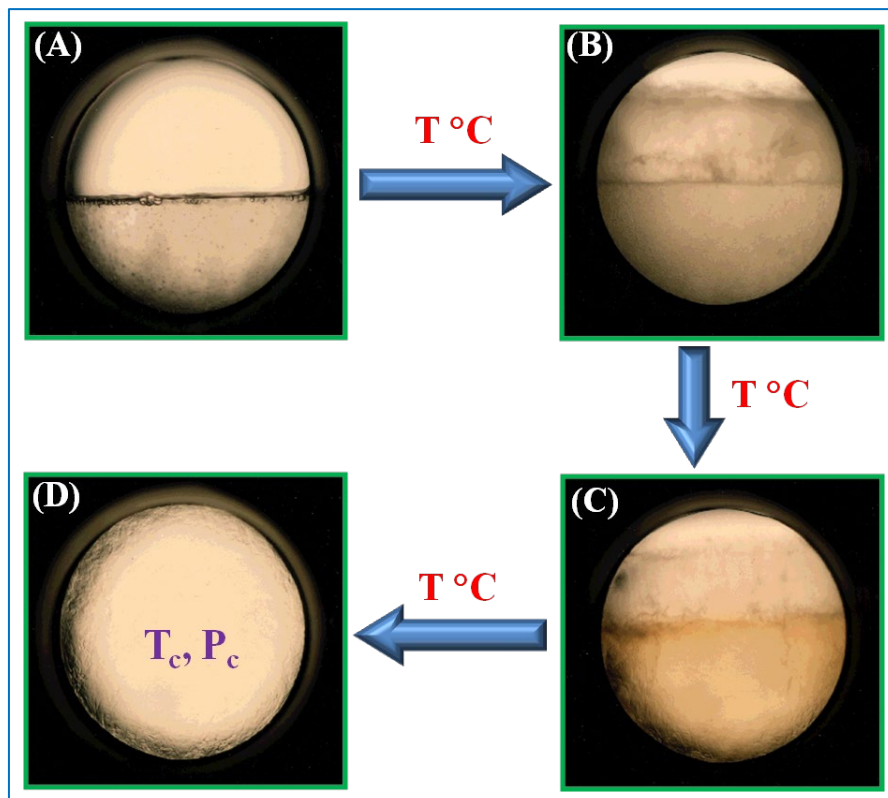


Figure 3 The formation of a new phase at critical temperature and critical pressure

In Figure 4, the separate carbon dioxide phases (liquid and gas phases) and the meniscuses are clearly visible (Figure 4 A). With an increase in temperature, the meniscus starts to reduce (Figure 4B). Further, an increase in the temperature results in the equalization of densities of gas and liquid. The meniscus is quite difficult to observe but still, it exists (Figure 4C). At critical temperature and pressure of the liquid and gas phases, the two separate phases of liquid and gas do not exist. Hence, the meniscus can no longer be seen, there exist only one homogeneous phase called the "supercritical carbon dioxide" phase (Figure 4D).

At standard temperature and pressure (STP), carbon dioxide is a gas when it is frozen it form solids known as dry ice. However, if the temperature and pressure increase from the STP to a tipping point higher than CO<sub>2</sub>, it shows the nature between a liquid and a gas.

*“The liquid state of carbon dioxide that exhibits above its critical temperature and critical pressure is called supercritical carbon dioxide (ScCO<sub>2</sub>)”.*



*Figure 4 Visualization of liquid and gas phase transitions into the supercritical phase for carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) [25]*

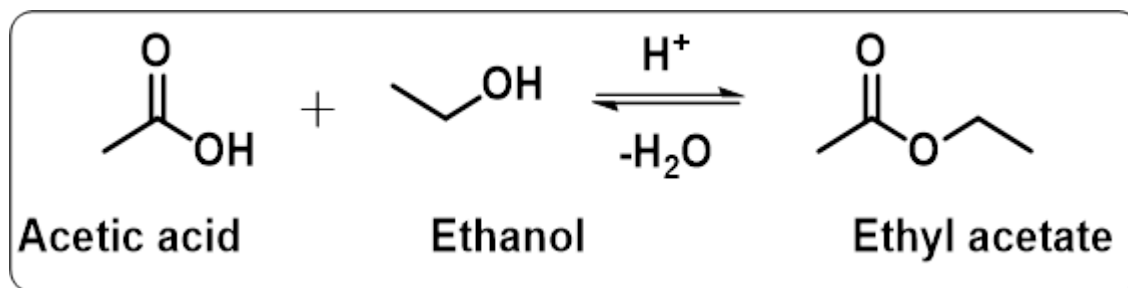
Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, due to its stability in the chemical reactions, low toxicity, is widely used commercially as an industrial solvent. Due to its stability, it is used extensively in the extraction process where the compounds to be extracted are devoid of denaturing.

Therefore, the ScCO<sub>2</sub> is used in various organic transformations such as esterification, acetalization, hydrogenation, condensation and oxidation as a solvent [1,23,24]. In this chapter, we aimed to cover the esterification reactions in the supercritical carbon dioxides to produce esters.

### 1.3 Esterification reaction and its applications

The reaction in which a carboxylic acid reacts with an alcohol in the presence of a catalyst and solvent to form an ester is called esterification reaction. It is a reversible reaction. The esters formed are sweet smelling compounds and have a fruity odour.

For example acetic acid in excess ethanol and concentrated  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , by removal of water results in ethyl acetate which is an ester, it represented in Scheme 1. Hence, this reaction is also called a dehydration reaction.



*Scheme 1      Acid-catalyzed esterification of acetic acid with ethyl alcohol*

The applications of esterification reactions are listed below:

- i. Esterification is used to test the nature of carboxylic acid and alcohols.
- ii. This is used in fragrance and flavor industries and also used in the polymer industry
- iii. The manufacturing of paints, dyes, medicines, soaps, varnishes, and synthetic rubber involves esterification reactions.
- iv. Chemical likes chloroform, iodoform, and ethers are made by this reaction.

#### **1.4      Experimental setup for esterification reaction in supercritical $\text{CO}_2$**

Generally, the esterification reactions are carried out using the experimental setup which has the following components [Fig 5].

- Plunger pump .....1
- Methanol reservoir .....2
- Constant temperature water-bath .....3
- High-pressure autoclave .....4
- Power controller.....5
- Sampling pipe .....6
- High-performance liquid chromatography .....7
- Vacuum flask .....8
- Vacuum pump.....9

- Mercury U-tube manometer.....10
- CO<sub>2</sub> cylinders .....11

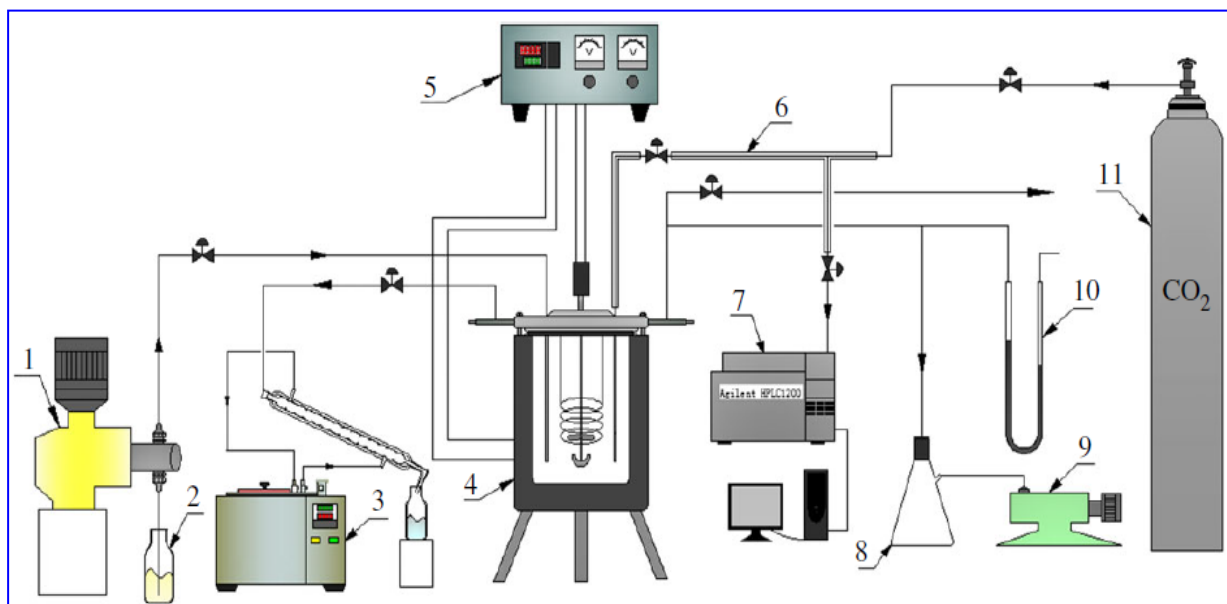


Figure 5 The experimental set-up [26]

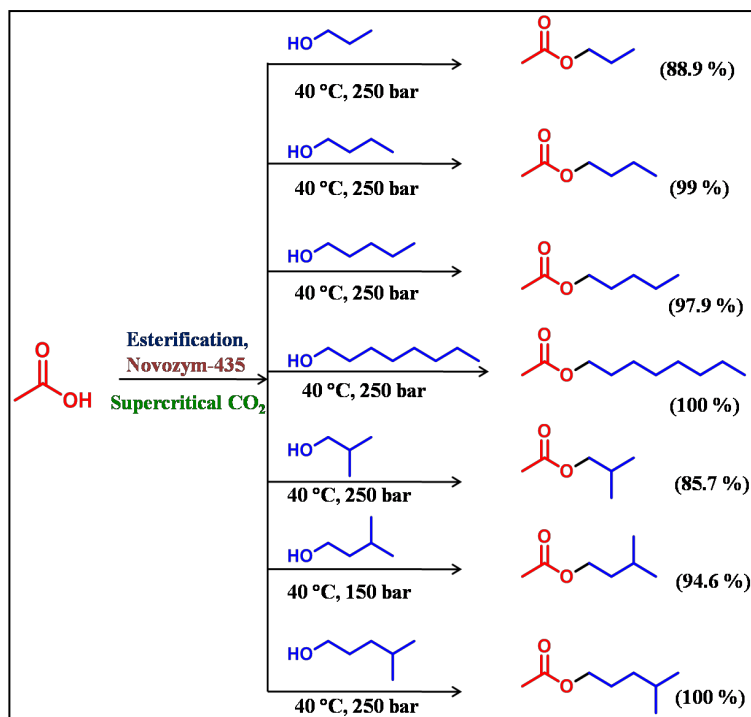
## 2. Esterification reactions in ScCO<sub>2</sub>

### 2.1 Enzymatic esterification reactions

The effects of pressure and temperature can be employed on the density and transport properties of SCFs, including viscosity, thermal conductivity, diffusivity, etc. These properties affect the solubility and transport of reactant molecules and products to/from the enzyme in various esterification reactions [27]. The high-temperature condition results in the less mass transfer limitations in physical properties such as surface tension, viscosity, solvating power, etc. Although it is significant to specify that the most favorable temperature for the enzymatically catalyzed esterification reactions in SCFs depends on the activity of the enzyme, the enzyme activity was decreased because of the thermal deactivation takes place with rising reaction temperatures [28-30]. The most favorable temperature for the enzyme-catalyzed reactions in SCFs was also dependant on the pressure of the reactor. Hence, the solubility of the reactants and products are significantly dependent on the density of the solvent, it has controlled with changing the reaction temperature and pressures during the course of the reaction. The efficiency of the esterification reaction was indirectly affected by changing pressure. The interaction between solute and solvent was increased with increasing reaction pressures, resulting in

a higher solvent capacity of SCFs [31]. In addition, the density of a solvent depending on physical properties (i.e., partition coefficient, dielectric constant and solubility parameters) was affected by changing the pressure of  $\text{ScCO}_2$ . These physical properties indirectly regulate the activity, specificity, and stability of the enzymes [32,33].

The dipole moment of various alcohols and carboxylic acids is a significant descriptor, which is much closer to the conversion of reactants to produce products. In supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$ , the dipole moment is highly correlated with the compound's solubility. The electrostatic interaction between the solute and solvent has a considerable effect on the solubility of reactants. As per the “like-dissolves-like” principle, the more polarity of the solute has lowered its solubility when compared to that of non-polar solvent i.e.,  $\text{CO}_2$  [34,35]. The esterification reactions are strongly affected by the solubility of the reactants. Therefore, the dipole moment is a key parameter in investigating factors which influence the percentage of conversions.

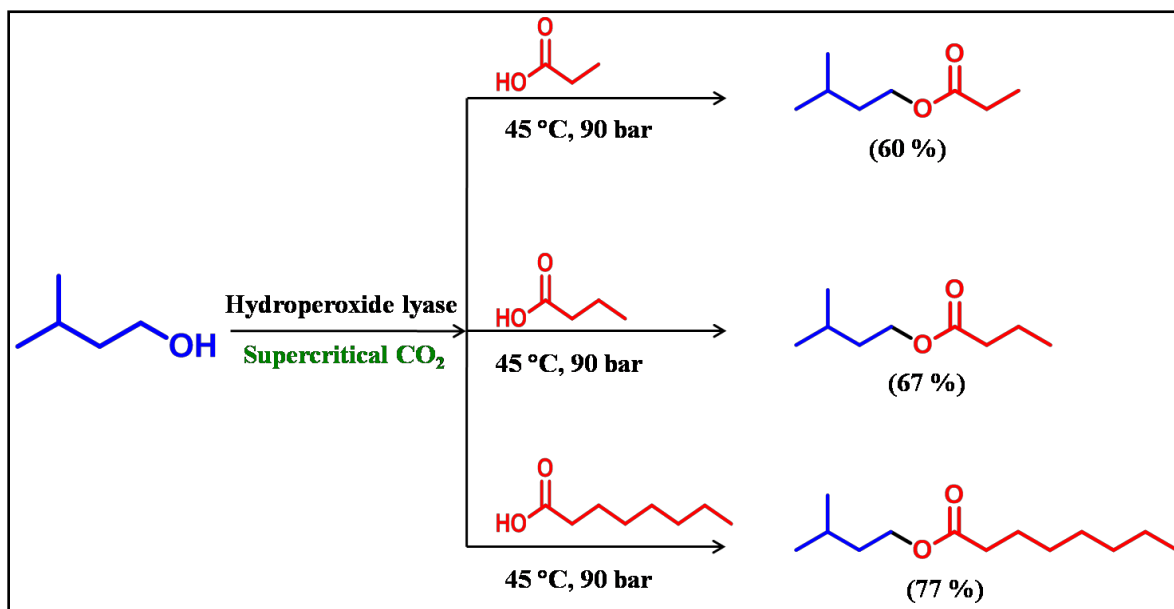


*Scheme 2 Esterification of acetic acid with different alcohols in the presence of Novozym-435 biocatalyst*

Scheme 2 shows the esterification of acetic acid with different alcohols at a constant temperature, 40°C and at constant pressure 250 bar in the presence of *Novozym-435* biocatalyst. It has been observed that in a straight chain, as the length of the chain

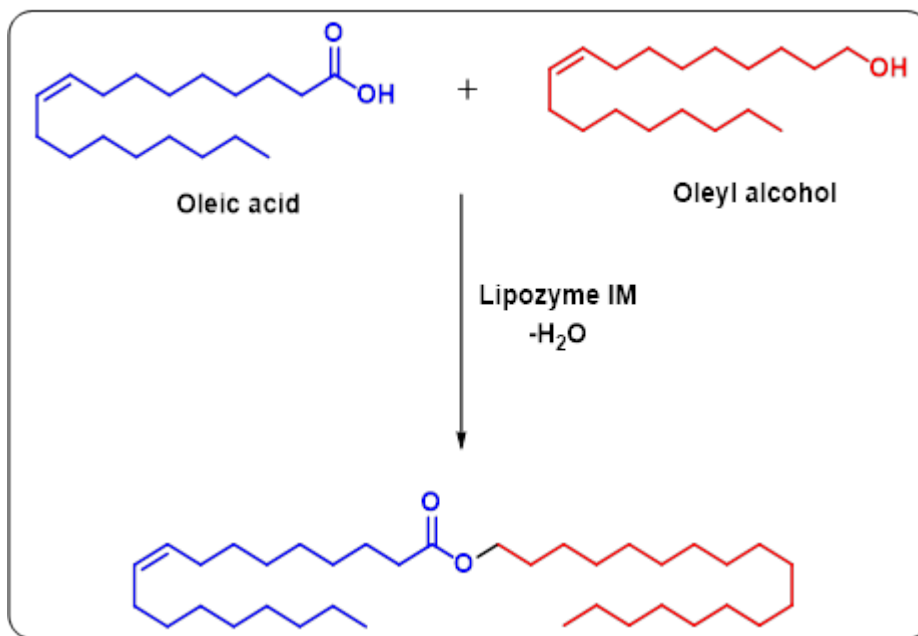
increases, the percentage of conversion significantly increases. When the carbon chain of alcohols increases from 3 to 8, the conversions increased from 88.9 to 100 %, respectively. In addition, it has also been observed that in a branched carbon chain, as the number of carbon atoms in the branch increases, the percentage of conversions also considerably increased.

In Scheme 3, when isoamyl alcohol is esterified with different acids at 45 °C of temperature and 90 bar of pressure over the hydroperoxide lyase (HPL) as a catalyst, the corresponding esters are obtained. It is clearly observed that with the increase in the length of the chain, the percentage of conversions increases. In addition, when the carbon chain of acids increases from 3 to 8, the conversions were also increased from 60 to 77 % respectively.



*Scheme 3 Esterification of different carboxylic acids with isoamyl alcohol in presence of Hydroperoxide lyase (HPL) biocatalyst*

Scheme 4 represents the esterification of oleic acid with oleyl alcohol at different pressures and temperatures. As the pressure or temperature is increased, the percentage of conversion is decreased. From Table 2, it is evident that the ideal temperature and pressure for maximum conversion are 50°C and 80 bars.



*Scheme 4 Esterification of oleic acid with oleyl alcohol over lipozyme IM catalyst at different temperatures and pressures*

*Table 2 Effect of reaction pressure on the esterification of oleic acid with oleyl alcohol as a function of temperatures.*

Pressure [bars]	Conversions [%] at different temperatures				
	40 °C	50 °C	60 °C	70 °C	80 °C
80	84	90	87	86	86
150	83	86	88	84	76
200	83	84	84	76	76
300	80	83	83	77	75
450	80	81	82	77	71

## 2.2 Mechanism of esterification reactions

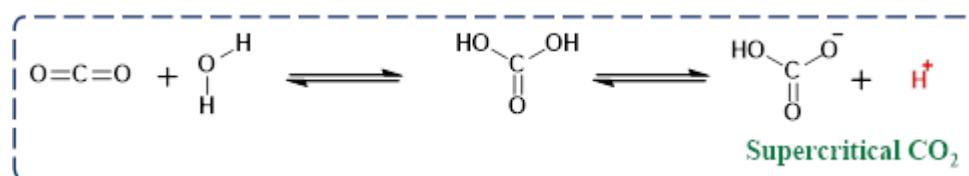
Generally, the colophony is a complex and containing a different percentage of carboxylic acids such as abietic acid (40%), palustric acid (20%), neoabietic acid (30%) and levopimaric acid (10%). These acids are produced with varies by the location of two double bonds in the colophony structure, causing different concentrations of different acids to be present. The colophony compounds, dehydroabietic acids, acetic acid, and long chain carboxylic acids, and these compounds were able to undergo esterification with different alcohols to produces a variety of esters [36-39]. In the presence of acid catalyst, the esterification reaction of the carboxylic group of acid reacts with the hydroxyl group of an alcohol is significantly improved in the presence of ScCO<sub>2</sub> [26,40].

Scheme 5 showed that the mechanism for the production of esters from the reaction between the acid and alcohol over the acid catalyst is discussed in two steps as follows:

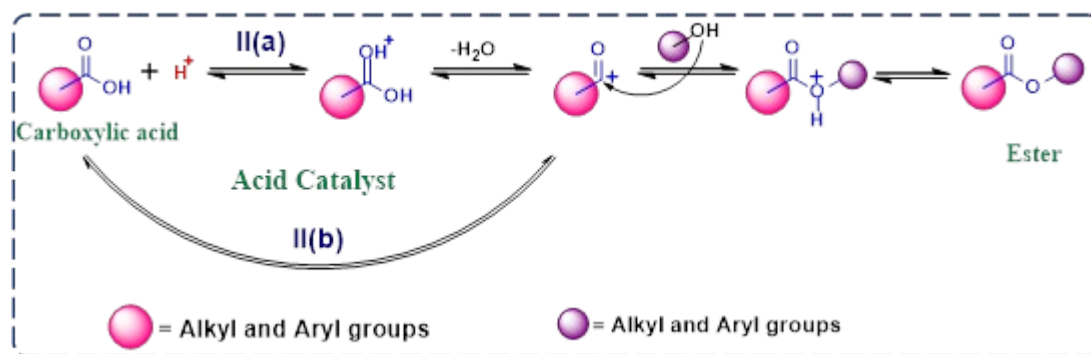
**Step –I:** A heterogeneous acid catalyst used in the esterification of carboxylic acids reacts with alcohols in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>. In this step-I, the carbon dioxide reacts with water to form H<sup>+</sup> ions and the supercritical fluid phase in a closed vessel.

**Step –II:** The produced H<sup>+</sup> ions react with a carboxylic acid to form protonated acid followed by dehydration to produce the acyl carbocation as one of the intermediate, which is represented in the pathway II(a). On the other hand, the carboxylic acid also produces acyl carbocation in the presence of an acid catalyst as shown in pathway II (b) of Scheme 5. Subsequently, the formed carbocation reacts with alcohol to generate an intermediate as protonated ester followed by removal of a proton to produce ester in the final step.

**Step –I:**



**Step –II:**



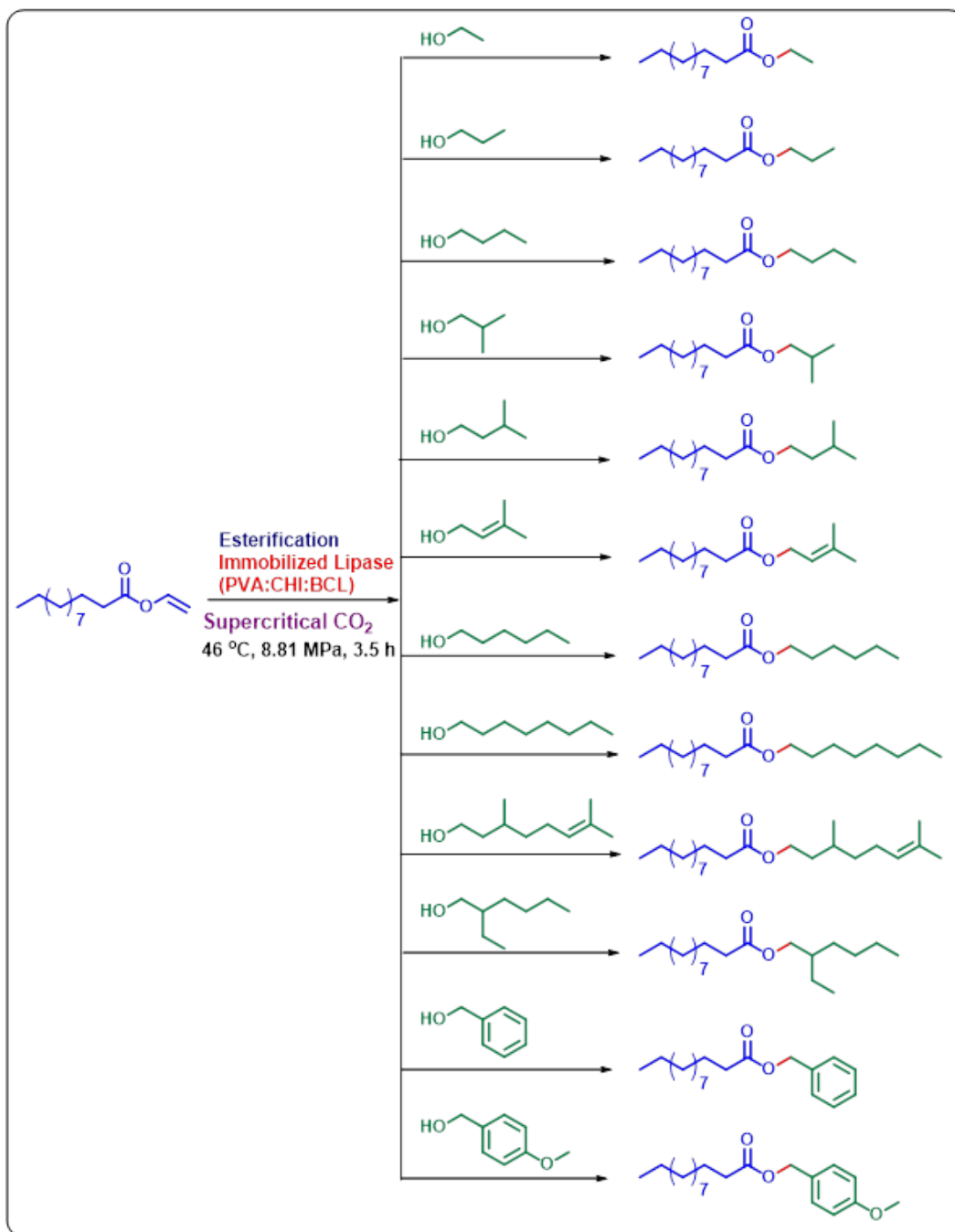
*Scheme 5 Mechanism of acid-catalyzed esterification reaction in the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>*

### 2.3 Effect of size of the carbon chain of alcohol in the esterification reactions

Different alcohols (short chain, long chain, and branched alcohols) have reactions with vinyl laurate to produce outstanding productivity of corresponding esters by using immobilized lipase biocatalyst under optimum reaction conditions. In addition, the lower

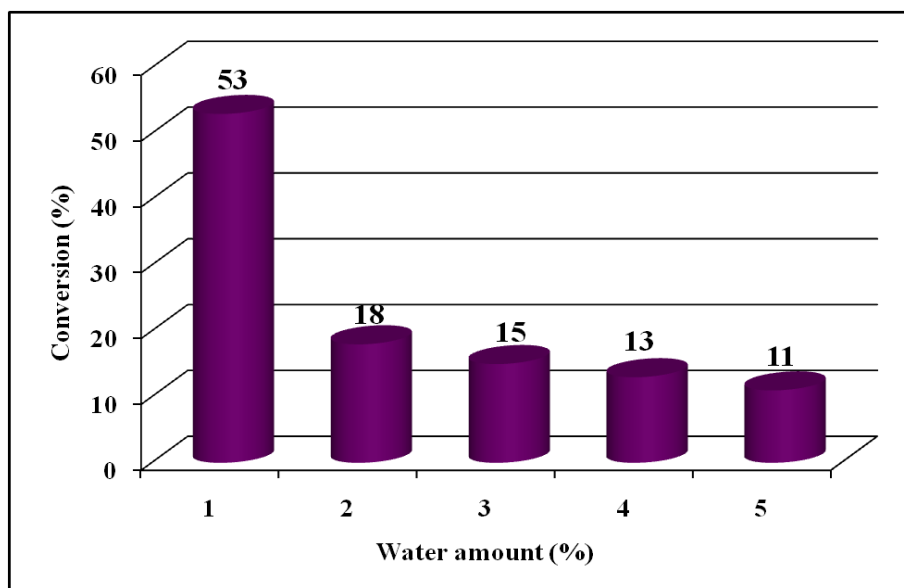


straight chain alcohols (such as ethanol, propanol, and butanol) reacted very quickly with acid than that of long carbon chain alcohols to provide a better yield (Scheme 6). It could be explained by the mass transfer limitations of long carbon chain alcohols on the biocatalyst reactive sites [41,42].



*Scheme 6 Synthesis of various valuable fatty acid esters by immobilized lipase biocatalyst*

Furthermore, the branched chain alcohols also affected by mass transfer limitations and give slightly lower yield than straight long chain alcohols. Among these, the aromatic benzyl alcohol derivatives gave excellent productivity in comparison with long carbon chain alcohol due to the superior nucleophilicity. All these laurate esters are also called as fatty acid esters, which are broadly applied in spin finishes in textiles, emulsifiers or oiling agents for foods, lubricant, paint or ink additives, surfactants, lubricants for plastics, etc. [41-45]. However, these compounds have also been applied as solvents, co-solvents and base materials in perfumery, flavor in food and pharma industries [42-45]. The reactivity order of the various alcohols in the esterification of vinyl laurate was given in the order: lower chain alcohols > branched chain alcohols > aromatic benzyl alcohol derivatives > straight long chain alcohols.



*Figure 6 Effect of water on the esterification reactions over biocatalyst*

## 2.4 Influence of water on the esterification reaction

The influence of water quantity on esterification reaction was studied using biocatalysts by adding different quantities of water to the reaction mixture as represented in Figure 6. Srivastava et al. [46] observed that the excess amount of water led to the sintering of the enzyme catalyst, and hence the availability of active sites on the biocatalyst surface area was decreased for the reaction. Sophie et al. [47] stated that the product formation in the esterification reactions, water can not only affect the activity of enzyme-catalyst but also the thermodynamic equilibrium of the esterification reactions. The high amount of water shifts the equilibrium of the esterification reaction towards backward direction by hydrolysis of the ester to form reactants, resulting in low yields of the ester products [46-

53]. This could be probably for the reason that the excess water shifted into the heavier phase from the lighter phase after it is saturated by water dilution. Thus, the water amount in the lighter phase always remains constant to control the temperature and pressure in the reaction mixture. In the presence of excess water, the enzyme added at the reactor bottom in the esterification reactions, an enzyme in direct contact with the heavy phase [48]. Hence, the reverse rate of reaction was rapidly increased, while decreasing the forward reaction rate towards the formation of ester products. For example, the yield of terpinyl acetate was lowered rapidly when the water introduced into the reaction mixture increased to 5% [46-48].

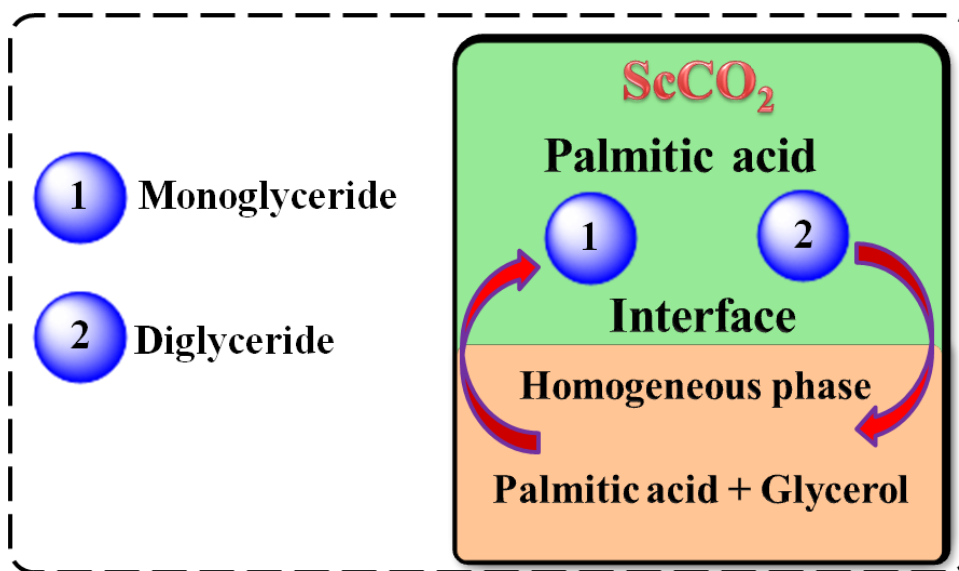


Figure 7 Phase transfer model of palmitin in  $\text{ScCO}_2$

## 2.5 Phase transfer model of palmitin

The phase transfer representation was designed to show the high selective production of diglyceride in the  $\text{ScCO}_2$  medium. The monoglyceride is formed as the starting compound, which instantly dissolved into the  $\text{ScCO}_2$  phase and then it improves termination of palmitic acid in  $\text{ScCO}_2$  solvent [54]. The main benefits of  $\text{ScCO}_2$  include more diffusivity and low viscosity to produce diglyceride products [55,56]. Hence, the rate of formation of diglyceride from monoglyceride has significantly improved by preparation of the glycerol and palmitic acid homogeneous phase in the presence of  $\text{ScCO}_2$ . However, monoglyceride formed instantly disappears from the homogeneous phase of reaction mixture due to its unique properties of  $\text{ScCO}_2$ , and an interface forms between two-phase systems (Figure 7). This type of phase behavior is reduced the further reactivity of diglyceride with acid to form triglyceride and concurrently stops the reaction

[54-56]. Therefore, the superior selectivity towards diglyceride product was obtained as a result of the solubility changes between the different reaction products [54].

## **2.6 The influence of pressure and temperature on the phase behaviour system**

Generally, every reaction is strongly dependant on the solubility of substrates in  $\text{ScCO}_2$ , which could be altered with little difference in pressure and/or temperature mainly close to the critical point of the compounds [57-59]. The solubility of all the reactant molecules increased with increase in the pressure as a consequence of the higher density of the supercritical fluid. In fact, the solvent power of supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  can be used to perform the esterification reactions. By increasing the temperature of the reaction, the substrate solubility in the presence of  $\text{ScCO}_2$  can be enhanced. However high-temperature reactions could lead to enzyme deactivation [58-60]. Hence, these esterification reactions have to be performed at most favorable temperatures for the enzyme activity. [60].

For example, the solubility investigations of lactic acid in  $\text{ScCO}_2$  have revealed that the solubility of lactic acid in  $\text{ScCO}_2$  improved at a temperature of  $55\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and pressure of 200 bars, i.e.,  $17 \times 10^8$  [61,62]. Therefore, the effects of temperature and pressure have been studied with lipase-catalyzed esterification reactions in  $\text{ScCO}_2$ . The phase performance of lactic acid/n-butanol/Novozyme-435/ $\text{ScCO}_2$  and lactic acid/n-butanol/Novozyme-435/n-hexane/ $\text{ScCO}_2$  systems where n-hexane was acting as a co-solvent has been examined, at different temperatures and pressures in a reactor [61-63]. Finally, comparable phase performances of the esterification reaction mixtures were achieved at the most favorable pressures and temperatures in the reaction mixtures [63].

## **2.7 Comparison between the presence and absence of biocatalyst**

The catalyzed esterification reaction has been performed with the equivalent quantity over immobilized lipase biocatalyst (PVA/CHI) and free lipase immobilized biocatalyst under optimal reaction parameters. It was observed that the reaction productivity was greatly improved in the presence of biocatalyst, while the reaction productivity was significantly lowered in the absence of biocatalyst as is shown in Figure 8. This could be explained as the absence of lipases straightforwardly expose to the  $\text{ScCO}_2$  background, as PVA/CHI biocatalyst was better connected with the support matrix [64-66]. However, after lipase immobilization, the lipases have well dispersed on the surface of immobilization support and then, easily activated the diffusion of the reactant on active sites of biocatalyst surface [41,64,67]. Therefore, the PVA/CHI biocatalyst exhibited ~4-fold higher catalytic activity in comparison with the absence of biocatalyst in  $\text{ScCO}_2$ . It was observed that the yield of final product was significantly achieved in presence of biocatalyst in 3–5-folds greater than that of the absence of biocatalyst [41]. Finally, these

results indicated that the esterification reaction could be significantly enhanced in the presence of lipase-based biocatalysts when compared to that of the absence of biocatalysts.

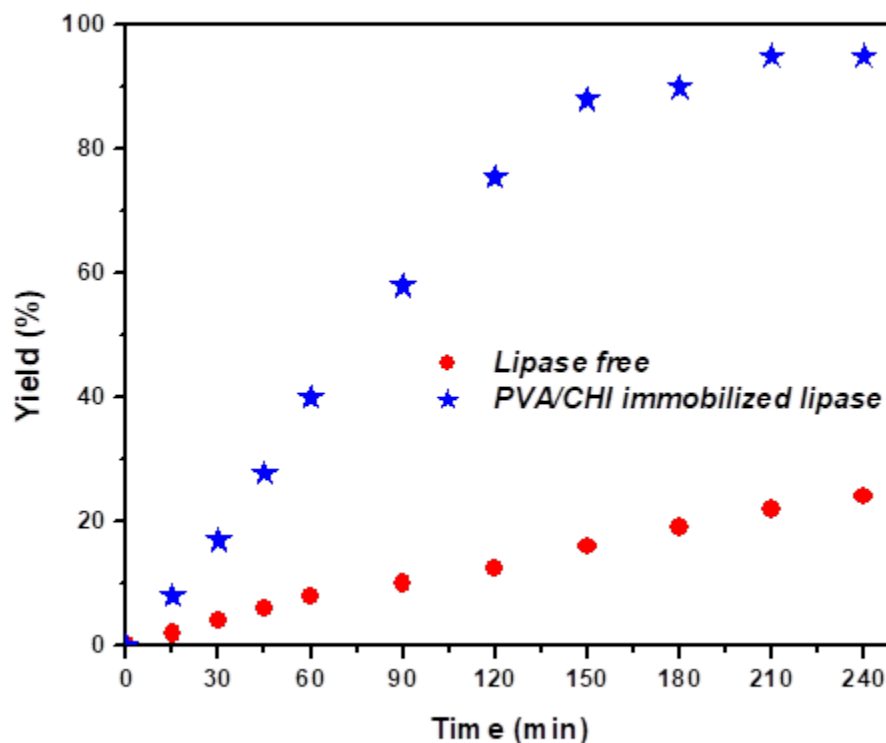


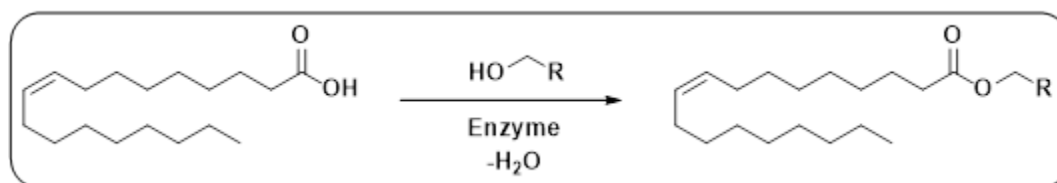
Figure 8 Comparison between the presence and absence of immobilized lipase biocatalyst as a function of time in the synthesis of citronellyl laurate in supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$

## 2.8 Comparison of activity between $\text{ScCO}_2$ and organic solvents

In the last few decades, a lot of research work signifying that enzyme-catalyzed esterification reactions in supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  solvent gave better activity in comparison with conventional organic solvents or solvent-free conditions has been reported [68,69].  $\text{ScCO}_2$  has been undertaken as an alternative to usual organic solvents for the biocatalyzed production of different esters. As acids are soluble in the  $\text{ScCO}_2$ , they easily partition into the ester products from the reaction mixture and also enzyme may be easily obtained as the reaction is carried out in  $\text{ScCO}_2$  solvent. The main drawback of the organic solvent is that it is applied as a solvent or co-solvent in esterification reactions, the separation of the solvent or co-solvent become more difficult than  $\text{ScCO}_2$  solvent.

Examples: i) Yu et al. [70] reported the more rapid production of ethyl oleate catalyzed over *Candida Cylindraceae Lipase* in supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  in comparison with organic solvents and Knez et al. [71,72] have reported the improved activities for the production

of corresponding ester catalyzed by *Lipozyme TL IM* in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> in comparison to absence of solvent conditions, which are clearly shown in Scheme 7. In addition to the enhanced rate of reactions and activities, improved selectivity in ScCO<sub>2</sub> has been reported by several researchers [73-75,76-78], which is due to the specific properties of ScCO<sub>2</sub> including lower viscosity and higher diffusivity of the substrates and formation of carbamate on the catalyst surface [73,74,78].



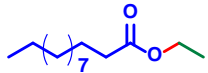
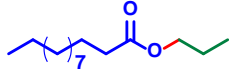
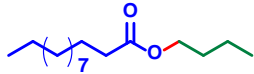
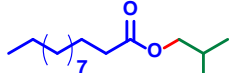
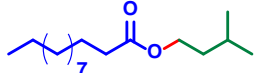
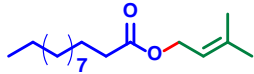
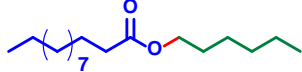
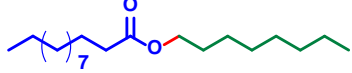
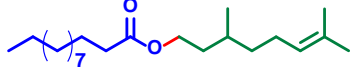
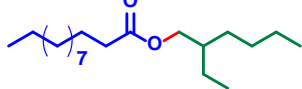
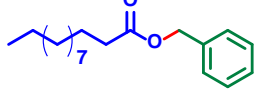
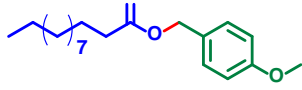
*Scheme 7 Esterification of oleic acid with an alcohol*

ii) Tewari et al. [79] explained the rate of reactions on the transesterification of benzyl alcohol and butylacetate by lyophilized *Candida Antarctica Lipase* biocatalyst. The rate of the reaction was enhanced in ScCO<sub>2</sub> than inorganic solvents such as hexane and toluene or in the absence of solvent reaction conditions.

## Summary

The chapter focuses on the substitution of the conventional solvents with stable, non-toxic and environmentally friendly solvent, supercritical carbon dioxide. The unique properties of ScCO<sub>2</sub>, it exhibits liquid-like density and gas-like diffusivity, surface tension and viscosity. Hence, it has widely used as a green solvent for esterification reactions in comparison with organic solvents. It also emphasizes the conversions towards the esters from the acids employing different reaction parameters such as temperatures, pressures, water dilution, and carbon chain of alcohols. In addition, a comparative study showed that the enzymatic esterification was much faster in ScCO<sub>2</sub> than in other organic solvents. The phase transfer model of palmitin was proposed to show highly selective production of diglycerides in ScCO<sub>2</sub> solvent. This type of phase behavior is reduced the further reactivity of diglyceride with acid to form triglyceride. Overall outlook gives the importance of supercritical carbon dioxide over the conventional solvent employing various parameters.

*Table 3 Conversions of vinyl laurate with different alcohols in the presence and absence of biocatalyst (Lipase).*

Substrate	Laurate yield ( %)	
	Lipase	Lipase free
	99	31
	99	30
	98	31
	98	33
	98	34
	99	32
	97	29
	93	23
	94	23
	95	28
	96	27
	95	29

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## Chapter 9

# Multicomponent Synthesis of Biologically Relevant Spiroheterocycles in Water

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*Dedicated to my little Agnish*

### Abstract

This chapter deals with the up-to-date developments of one-pot multicomponent synthesis of biologically relevant spiroheterocycles in aqueous media. As the current topic is one of the challenging areas for today's organic chemists, therefore the present chapter will surely be a valuable document to boost the on-going developments in this direction.

### Keywords

Spiroheterocycles, Multicomponent Reactions, Bioactivity, Aqueous Media, Green Synthesis

### List of abbreviations

CNS: Central nervous system

PEG: Polyethylene glycol

SDS: sodium dodecyl sulfate

CSA: Camphor-10-sulfonic acid

CTAB: Cetyltrimethylammonium  
bromide

*p*-TSA: *p*-Toluene sulfonic acid

EDDA: Ethylenediamine diacetate

$\beta$ -CD:  $\beta$ -Cyclodextrin

TEBAC: Triethylbenzylammonium  
chloride

TBAB: Tetrabutylammonium bromide

TEBA: Triethylbenzylammonium  
chloride

DBSA: *p*-dodecylbenzenesulfonic acid

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## 1. Introduction

Heterocycles are the main building block of many organic compounds [1, 2]. Majority of organic compounds consist of diverse heterocyclic motifs. Spiroheterocycles where two rings attached through a common carbon atom are structurally interesting [3]. These significant classes of organic compounds are important as they possess a wide range of biological activities [4, 5]. Many naturally occurring organic compounds possess spiroheterocyclic skeleton that include horsfiline (anesthetics) [6], abamectin (insecticide and antihelmintic) [7], coerulescine (anesthetics) [8], ajugarin I (insect antifeedant) [9], calcimycin (antibiotic and antifungal) [10], chlorogenin (cytotoxic) [11], alstonisine (antitumour and antimicrobial agents) [12], convallamarogenin (anti-food-deteriorating agent) [13], coriamyrtin (investigative tool in neuroscience) [14], spirotryprostatin (inhibitors of microtubule assembly) [15], digitogenin (cardiac glycoside) [16], fredericamycin-A (cytotoxic) [17], fumagillin (antibiotic and anti protozoal) [18], isopteropodine (serotonin receptor modulators) [19], griseofulvin (antifungal), [20], gelsemine (CNS stimulant) [21], grindelic acid (HIV-1 reverse transcriptase inhibitor) [22] and hecogenin (cholesterol absorption inhibitor) [23] etc. Furthermore, many synthetic spiroheterocyclic scaffolds are being clinically used as potent antimicrobial [24], diuretic [25], antitumor [26], antipsychotic [27], antibroncho-constrictor [28], inhibitors of the human NK-1 receptor [29], antihypertensive [30], anxiolytic [31], antibiotic [32], anti-diabetic [33], anti-ulcer [34] and antihypertensive [35] agents.

Recently, a multi-component reaction (MCR) strategy is becoming one of the valuable tools to synthesize various structurally diverse organic scaffolds in a pot. MCR strategy offers a wide range of advantages including operational simplicity, reduction in the number of work-up steps by minimizing the purification processes, atom economic and energy efficiency [36-38]. As a result, both in academia as well as in industry there is a constant effort to design environmentally sustainable multi-component reactions in a pot.

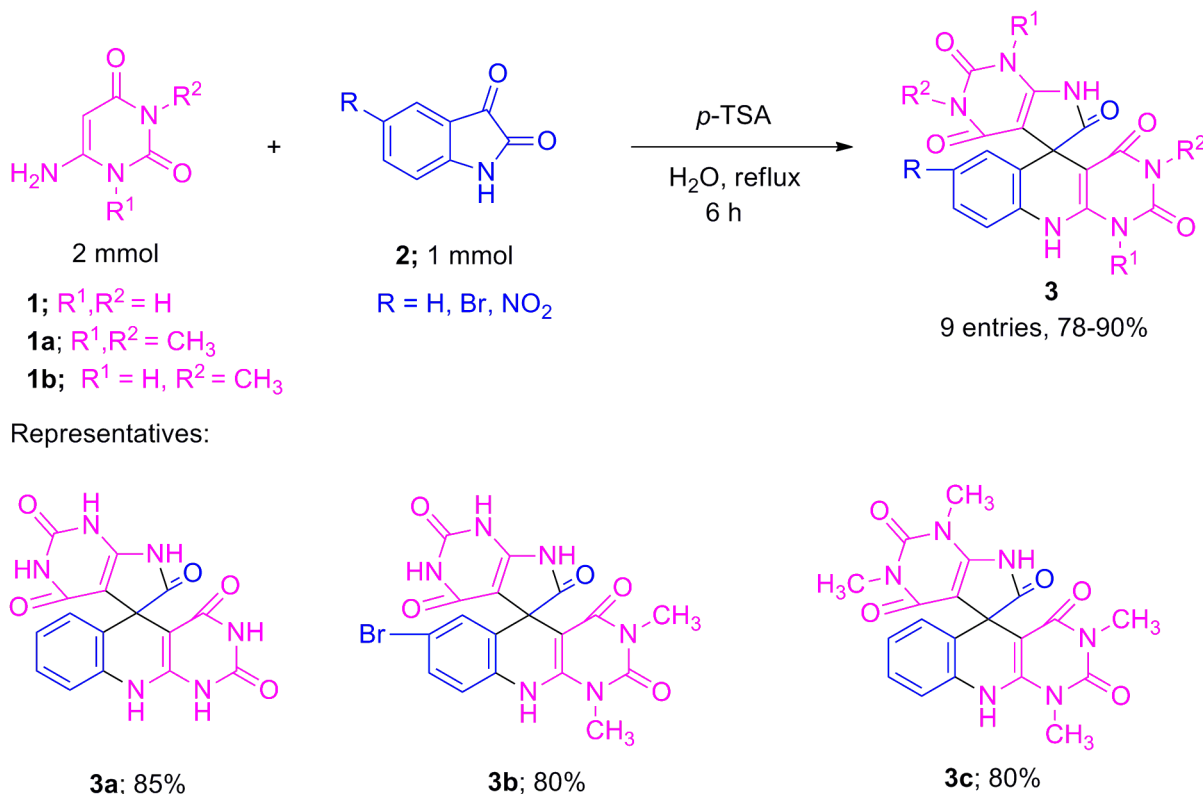
On the other hand, it is interesting to note that the last decade has shown a tremendous outburst of aqueous mediated organic transformations to make them 'sustainable' for the betterment of our *Mother Nature* [39]. Now-a-days, to carry out organic reactions, water

has become the first choice as a solvent because of its environmental friendliness as well as it is non-flammable, cheap and abundantly available [40].

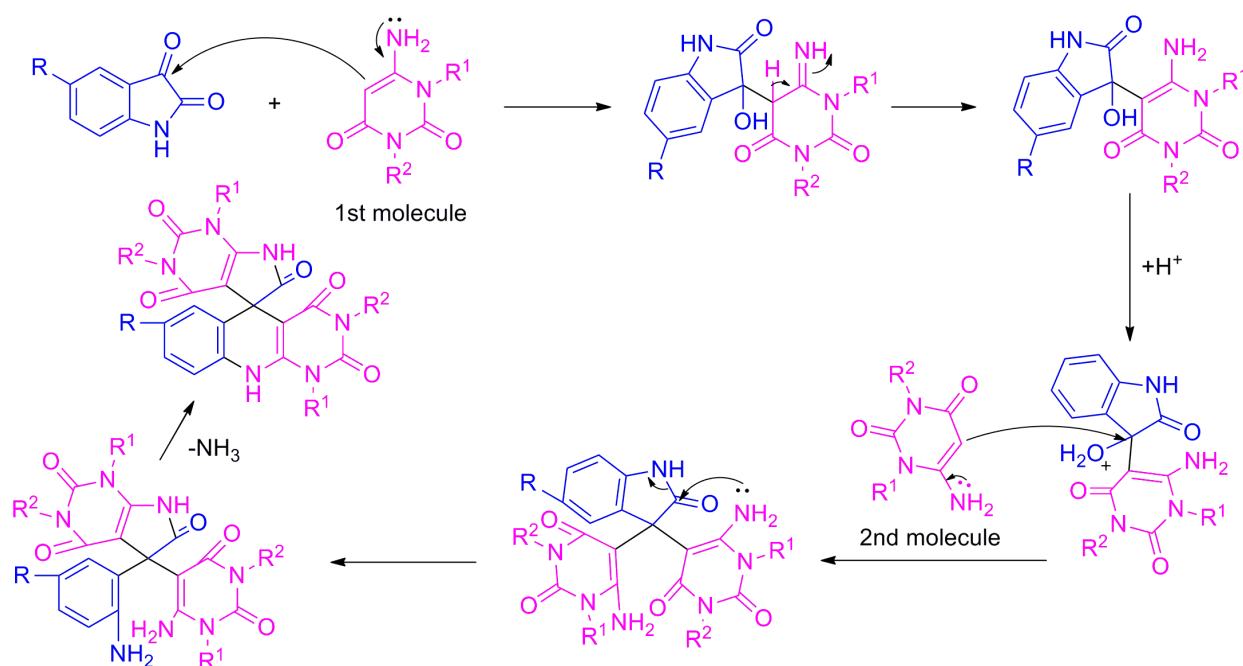
## 2. Synthesis of *N*-containing spiroheterocycles

### 2.1 Synthesis of spiro[pyrimido[4,5-*b*]quinoline-5,5-pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine]-pentaone derivatives

Bazgir and his co-researchers [41] developed a simple, mild and efficient protocol for the synthesis of biologically promising spiro[pyrimido[4,5-*b*]quinoline-5,5-pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine]-pentaone derivatives (**3**) *via* one-pot pseudo three-component reactions of two equivalents of 6-amino-uracil derivatives (**1**, **1a**, **1b**) and one equivalent of substituted isatins (**2**) using *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) as catalyst in aqueous media (Scheme 1). It was proposed that the reaction undergoes through the unusual ring opening of isatin moiety followed by recyclization (Scheme 2). Compound **3b** showed the highest antibacterial activity among the all synthesized compounds.



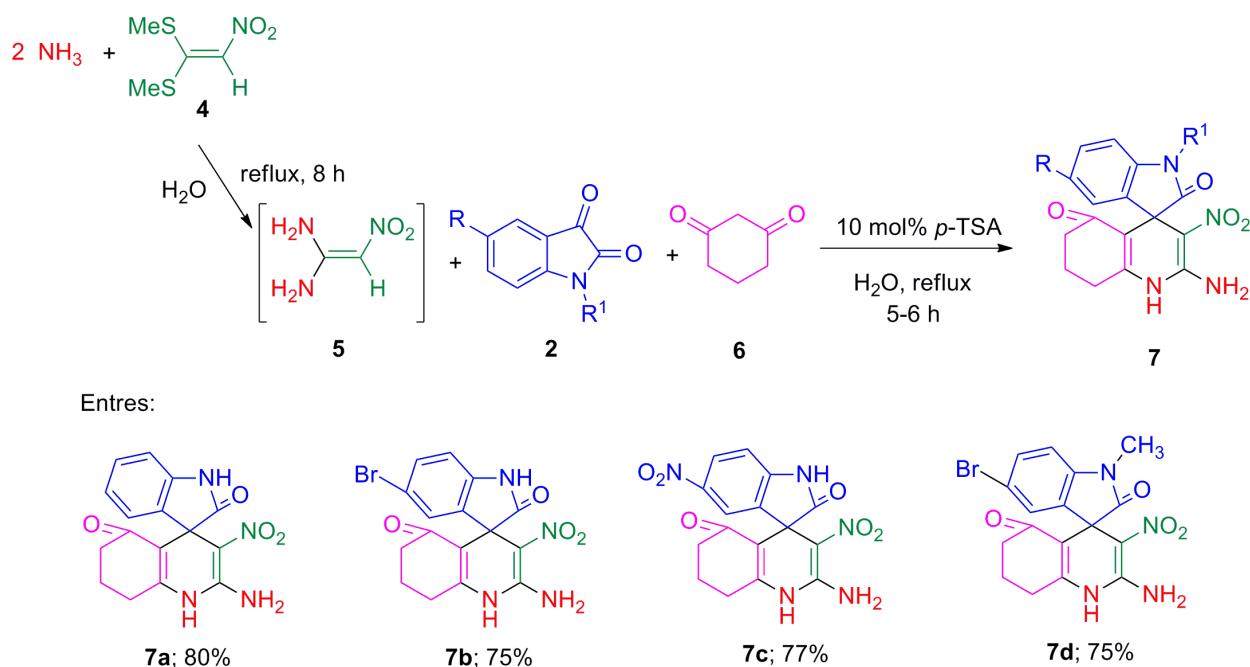
**Scheme 1** *p*-TSA catalyzed pseudo three-component synthesis of spiro[pyrimido[4,5-*b*]quinoline-5,5-pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine]-pentaone derivatives in aqueous medium



**Scheme 2** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spiro[pyrimido[4,5-*b*]quinoline-5,5'-pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine]-pentaone derivatives in water

## 2.2 Synthesis of spirooxindole-containing fused 1,4-dihydropyridine derivatives

Another *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) catalyzed protocol was developed by Alizadeh et al. [42] for the efficient synthesis of spirooxindole-containing fused 1,4-dihydropyridine derivatives (**7**) via one-pot pseudo five-component reactions between two equivalents of ammonia, one equivalent of 1,1-bis(methylthio)-2-nitroethylene (**4**), one equivalent of isatin or its derivatives (**2**) and one equivalent of 1,3-cyclohexanedione (**6**) in aqueous medium under heating conditions (Scheme 3). The reaction underwent through the formation of intermediate 1,1-bis(amino)-2-nitroethylene (**5**). Uses of aqueous media, metal free organocatalyst and high product yields have been the major benefits of this method.



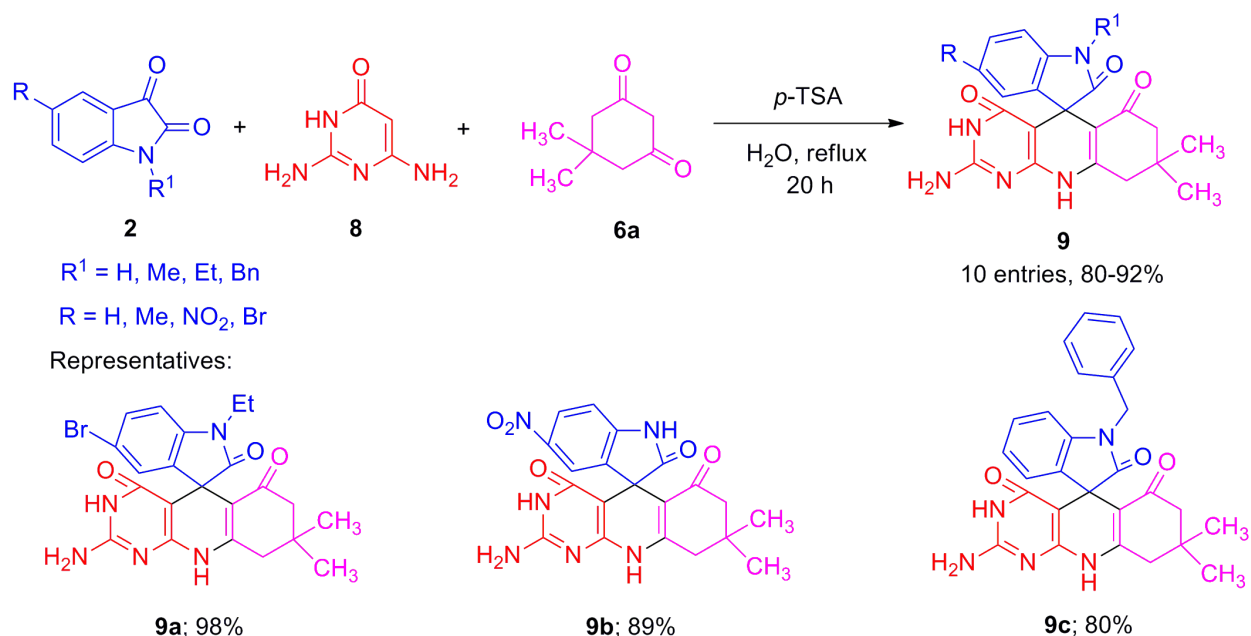
**Scheme 3** *p*-TSA catalyzed synthesis of spirooxindole-containing fused 1,4-dihydropyridine derivatives in an aqueous medium.

### 2.3 Synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,5'-pyrimido[4,5-*b*]quinoline] derivatives

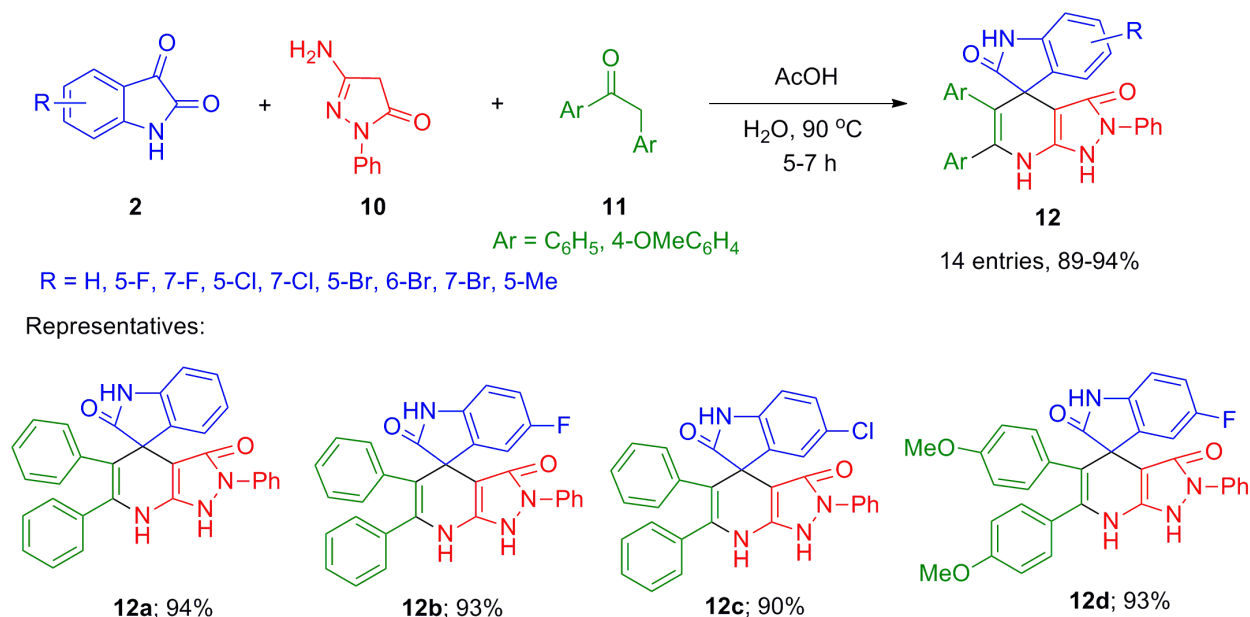
Bazgir and his group [43] have developed a simple and straightforward method for the one-pot three-component synthesis of a series of novel spiro[indoline-3,5'-pyrimido[4,5-*b*]quinoline] derivatives (**9**) *via* the condensation between isatins (**2**), 2,6-diaminopyrimidin-4(3*H*)-one (**8**) and dimedone (**6a**) using the same *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) as catalyst in water under reflux conditions (Scheme 4). Use of green solvent, operational simplicity, easy work-up procedure and good to excellent yields were some of the major advantages of this developed method.

### 2.4 Synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-*b*]pyridine]-2,3' (7'*H*)-dione

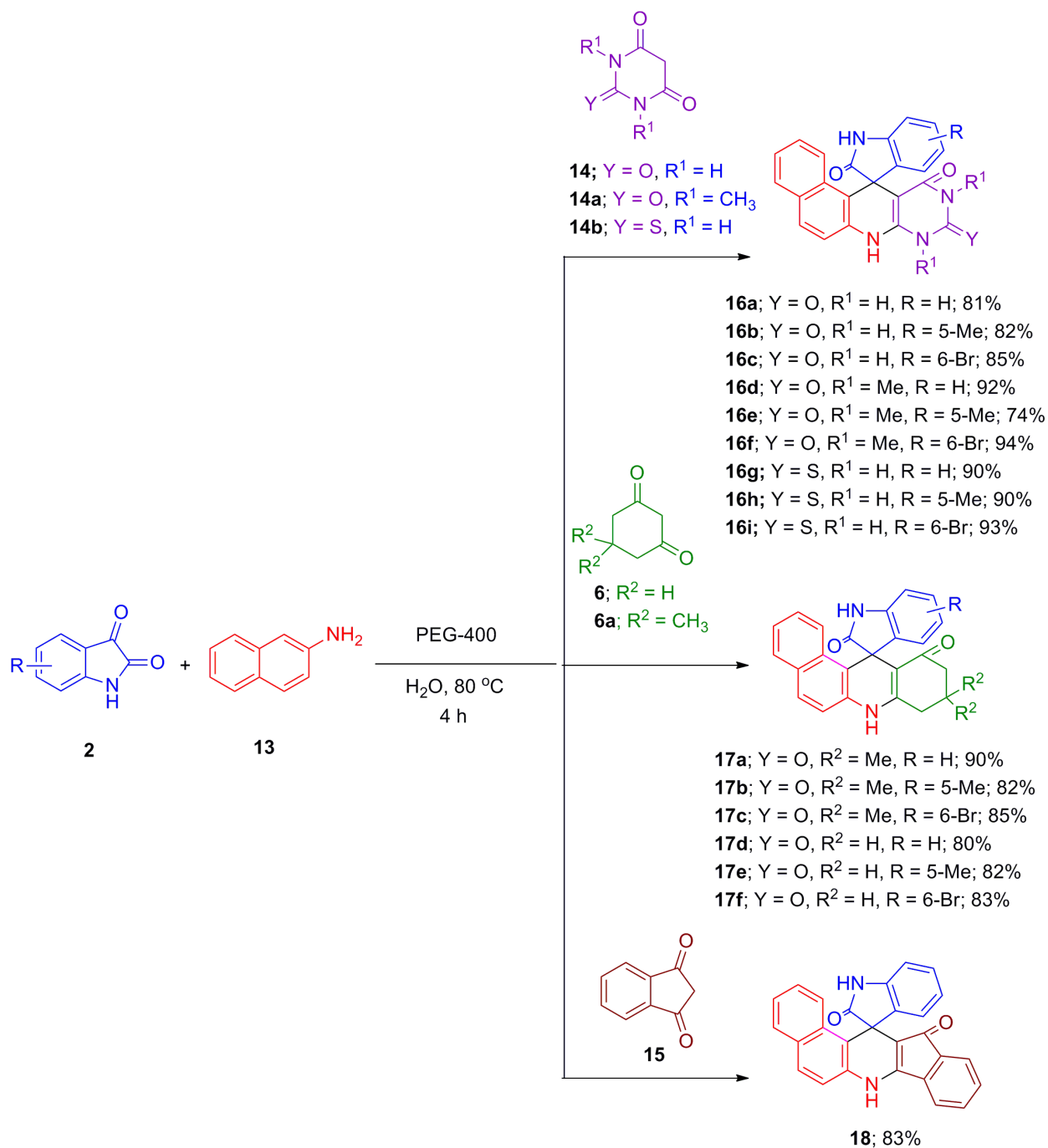
A series of novel spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-*b*]pyridine]-2,3'(7'*H*)-diones (**12**) was synthesized *via* one-pot three-component reactions of isatins (**2**), 3-amino-1-phenyl-1*H*-pyrazol-5(4*H*)-one (**10**) and 1,2-diphenylethan-1-one (**11**) using acetic acid as catalyst in water at 90 °C (Scheme 5) [44]. Excellent yields, wide scope substrates, mild reaction conditions, use of water as a solvent were some of the major advantages of this protocol.



**Scheme 4** *p*-TSA catalyzed synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,5'-pyrimido[4,5-*b*]quinoline] derivatives in water



**Scheme 5** Acetic acid-catalyzed synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-*b*]pyridine]-2,3' (7'*H*)-dione in aqueous medium.



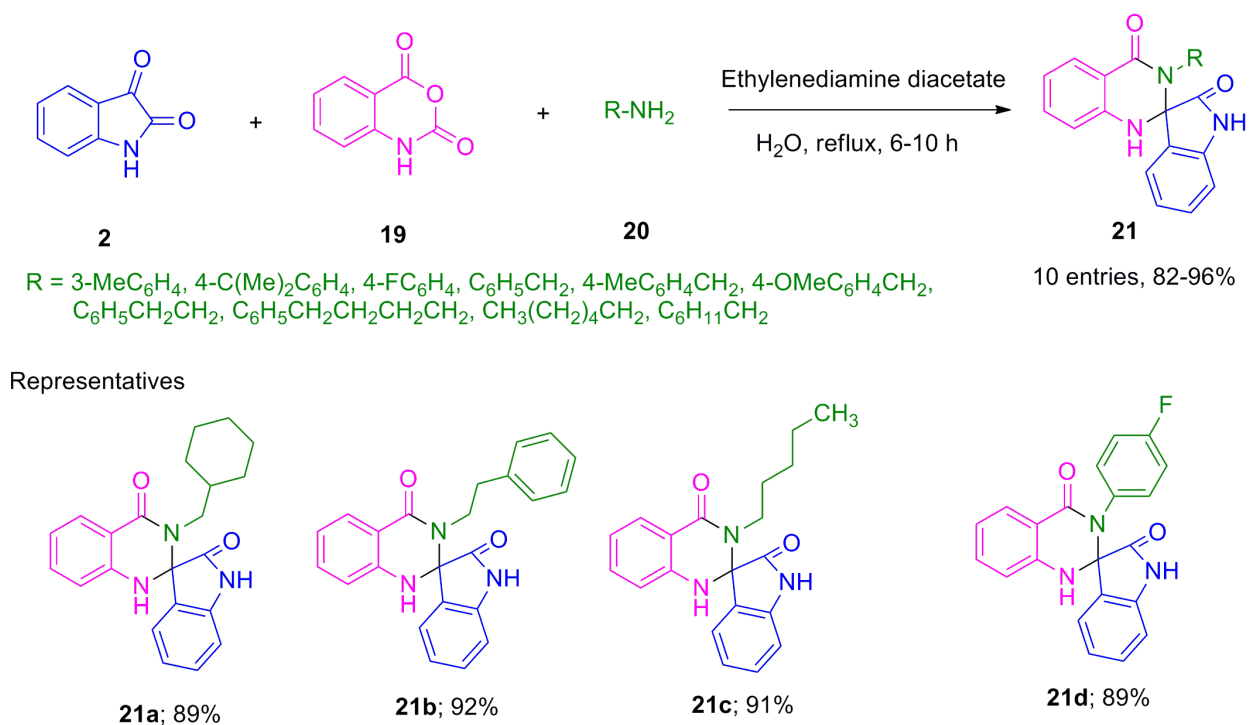
**Scheme 6:** PEG-400 mediated synthesis of spiro[dihydropyridine-oxindole] derivatives

## 2.5 Synthesis of spiro[dihydropyridine-oxindole] derivatives

A large number of biologically promising structurally diverse spiro[dihydropyridine-oxindole] derivatives (**16a-16i,17a-17f,18**) were synthesized by Lu et al. [45] *via* one-pot three-component reactions of isatins (**2**),  $\beta$ -naphthylamine (**13**) and various 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds such as barbituric acids (**14,14a**) or thiobarbituric acid (**14b**) or 1,3-cyclohexadiones (**6,6a**) or indane-1,3-dione (**15**) using polyethylene glycol (PEG-400) in water as solvent at 80 °C (Scheme 6).

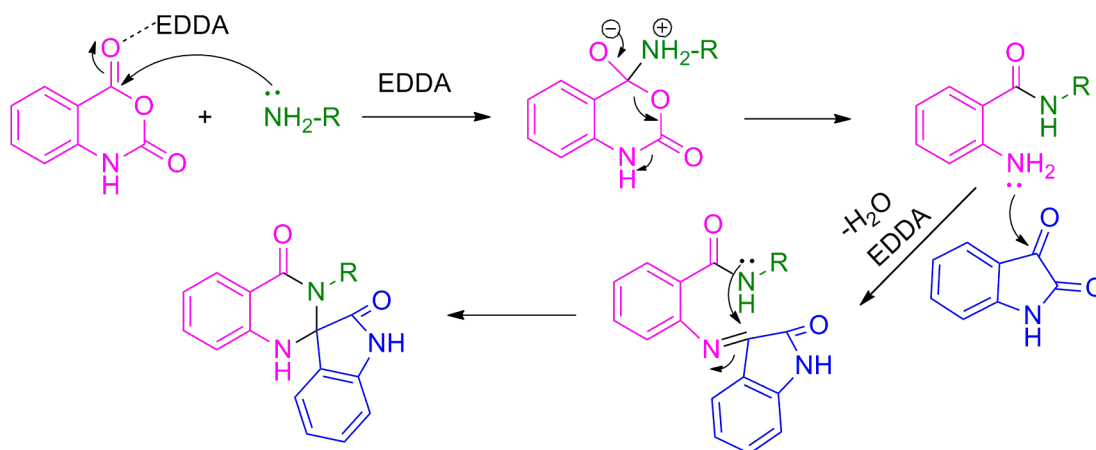
## 2.6 Synthesis of spirooxindolyl-dihydroquinazolinone derivatives

A catalytic amount of ethylenediamine diacetate (EDDA) was employed as an efficient organocatalyst for the synthesis of biologically interesting spirooxindolyl-dihydroquinazolinone derivatives (**21**) starting from isatins (**2**), isatoic anhydride (**19**) and various primary amines (**20**) in an aqueous medium under reflux conditions (Scheme 7) [46]. The proposed mechanism of this conversion is described in Scheme 8.



**Scheme 7** EDDA-catalyzed synthesis of spirooxindolyl-dihydroquinazolinone derivatives in water

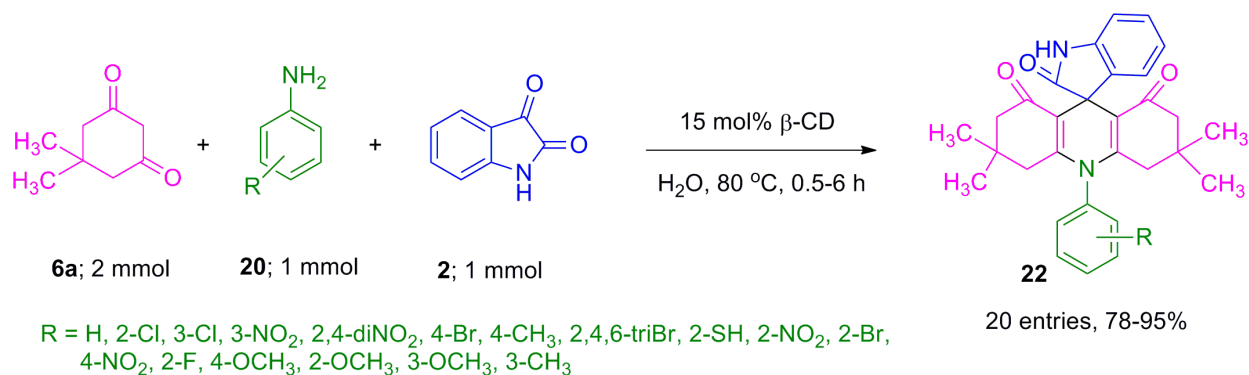




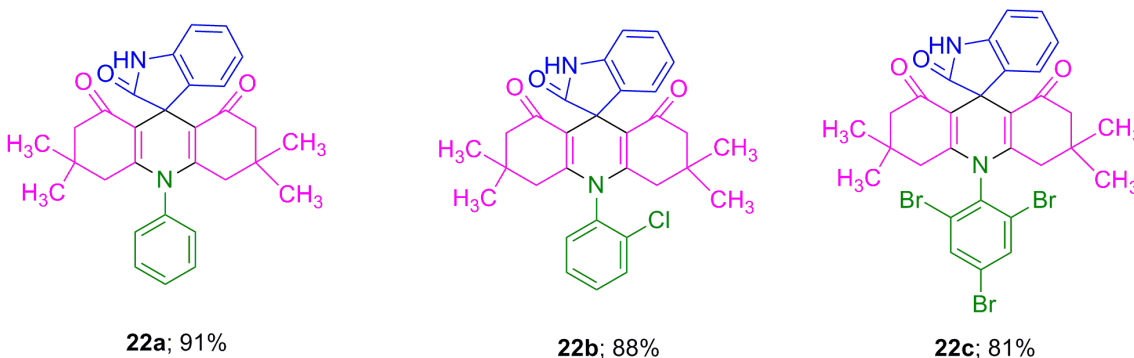
**Scheme 8** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spirooxindolyl-dihydroquinazolinone derivatives in water

## 2.7 Synthesis of spiro[acridine-9,3'-indole]-2',4,4'(1'H,5'H,10H)-trione derivatives

Chate et al. [47] reported a simple, efficient and environmentally benign protocol for the synthesis of a series of bioactive spiro[acridine-9,3'-indole]-2',4,4'(1'H,5'H,10H)-trione derivatives (**22**) via one-pot four component condensation reactions of two equivalents of dimedone (**6a**), one equivalent of substituted anilines (**20**) and one equivalent of isatin (**2**) using a catalytic amount of  $\beta$ -cyclodextrin ( $\beta$ -CD) in aqueous media at 80 °C (Scheme 9). The catalyst was recovered quantitatively and reused three times without any significant loss in its catalytic activities. Among the all twenty synthesized compounds, **22c** showed the highest antibacterial activity against the tested bacterial strain.



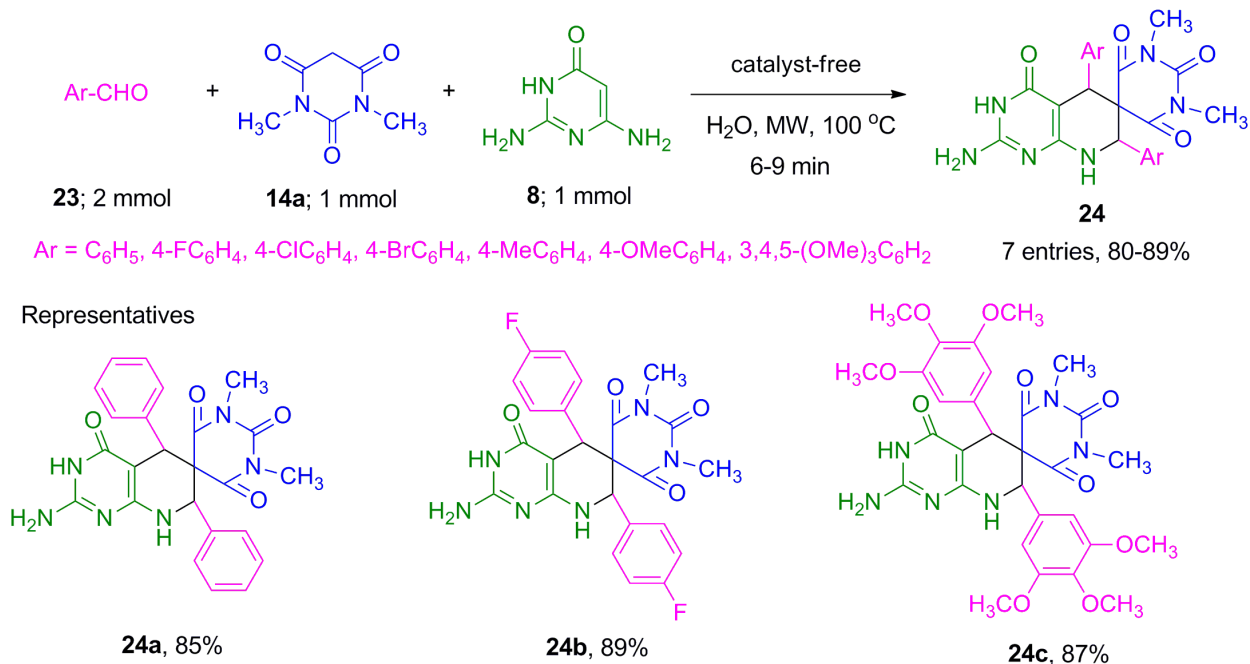
Representatives:



**Scheme 9**  $\beta$ -CD-catalyzed synthesis of spiro[acridine-9,3'-indole]-2',4,4'(1'H,5'H,1'H)-trione derivatives in aqueous medium

## 2.8 Synthesis of 6-spiro-substituted pyrido[2,3-*d*]pyrimidines

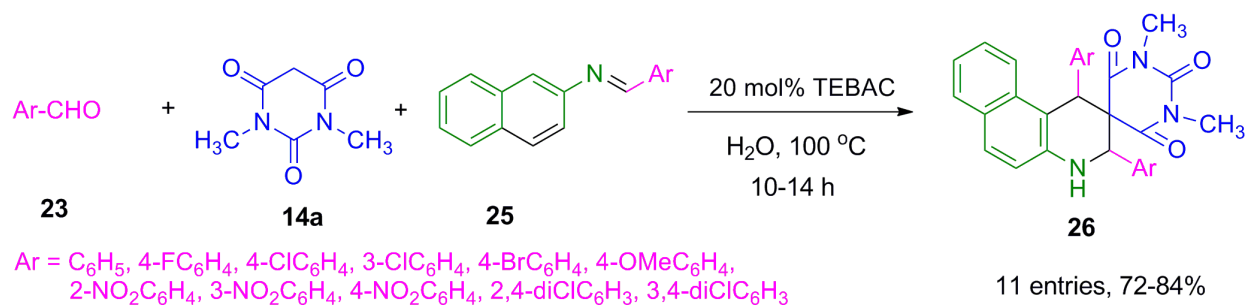
Catalyst-free synthesis of a series of stereoselective novel 6-spirosubstituted pyrido[2,3-*d*]-pyrimidines (**24**) was achieved by the reactions of two equivalents of various aldehydes (**23**), one equivalent of 1,3-dimethyl barbituric acid (**14a**) and one equivalent of 2,6-diaminopyrimidine-4-one (**8**) in water under microwave-irradiated conditions at 100 °C (Scheme 10) [48]. High stereoselectivity (up to 99%), catalyst-free conditions, use of a green solvent, very short reaction times, operational simplicity and excellent yields were some of the benefits of this reported method.



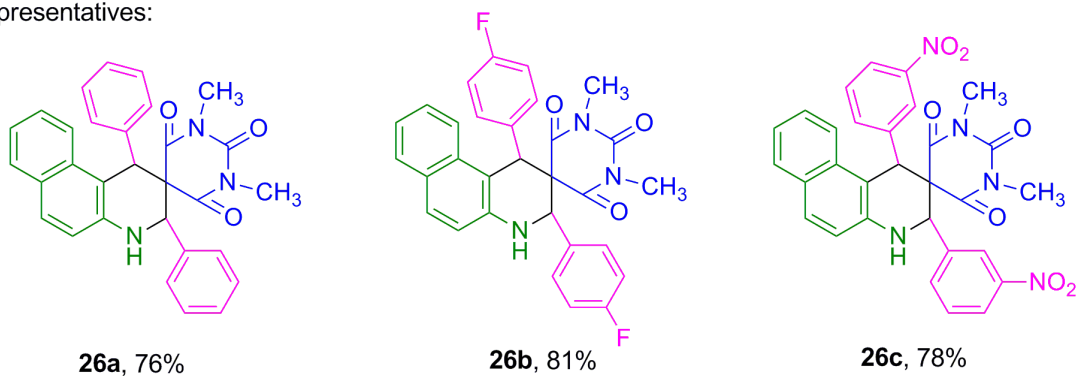
**Scheme 10** Microwave-assisted synthesis of 6-spiro-substituted pyrido[2,3-*d*]pyrimidines in water under catalyst-free conditions

## 2.9 Synthesis of pyrimidine fused spiro-benzoquinolines

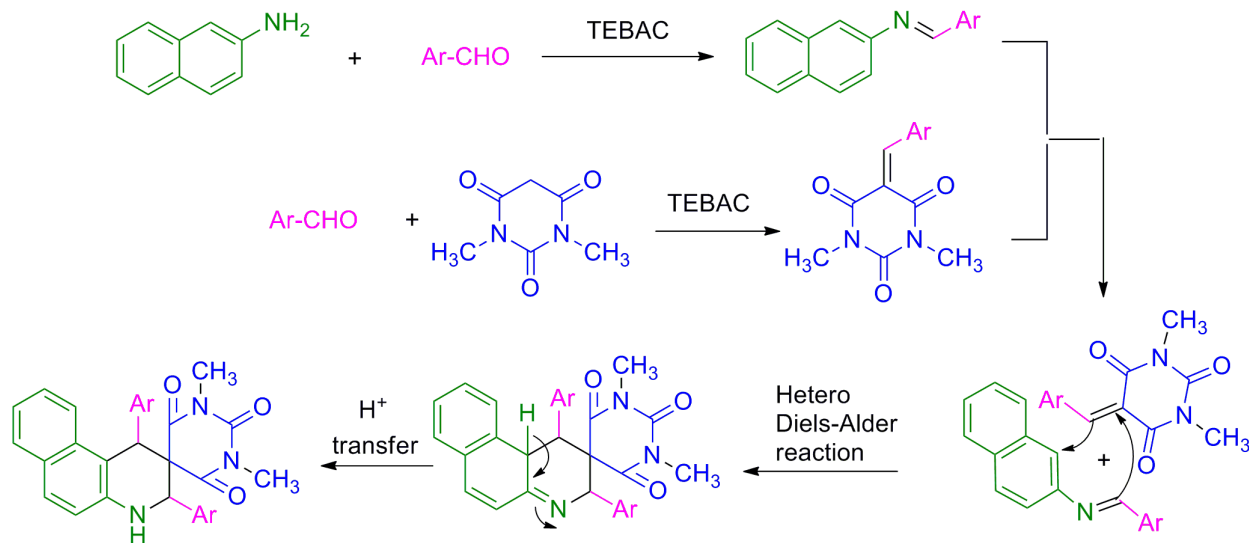
A simple, facile and environment friendly protocol was designed by Wang et al. [49] for the efficient synthesis of a series of pyrimidine fused spiro-benzoquinolines (**26**) starting from various aromatic aldehydes (**23**), 1,3-dimethyl barbituric acid (**14a**) and *N*-(arylidene)naphthalen-2-amine (**25**) using triethylbenzylammonium chloride (TEBAC) as catalyst in water at 100 °C (Scheme 11). Aromatic aldehydes with both electron-donating as well as electron-withdrawing substituents produced excellent yields of the desired products. It was proposed that the desired products were formed by following the hetero Diels-Alder reaction pathway (Scheme 12).



Representatives:



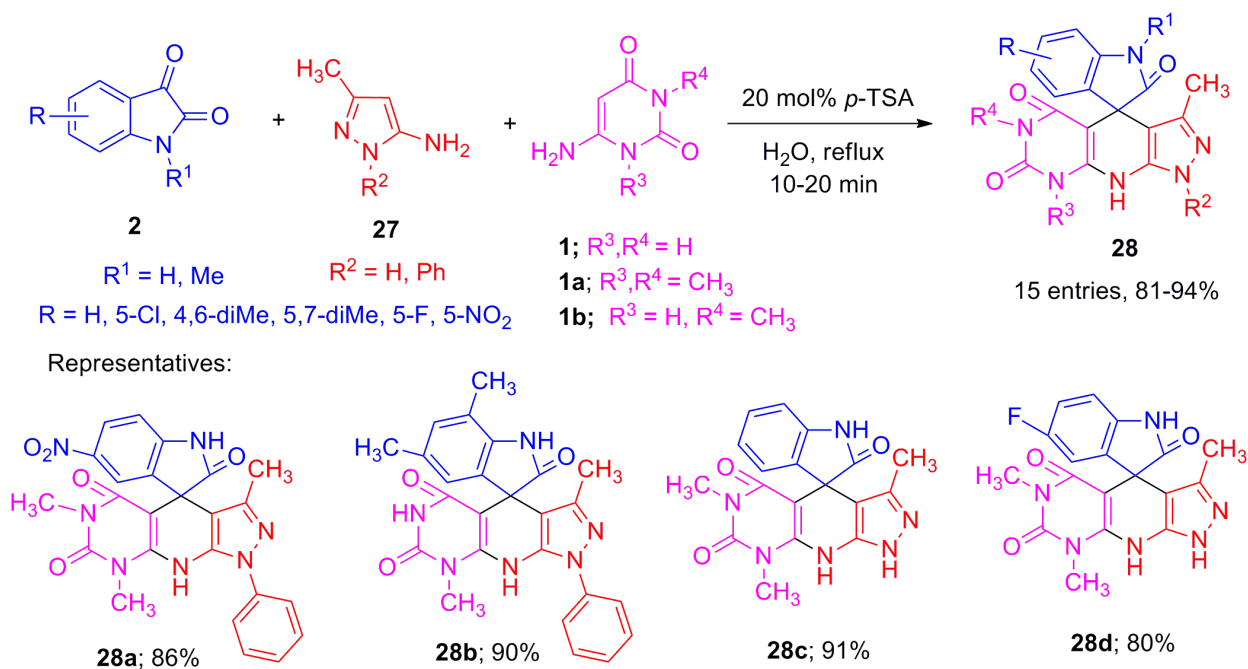
**Scheme 11** TEBAC-catalyzed synthesis of pyrimidine fused spiro-benzoquinolines in water



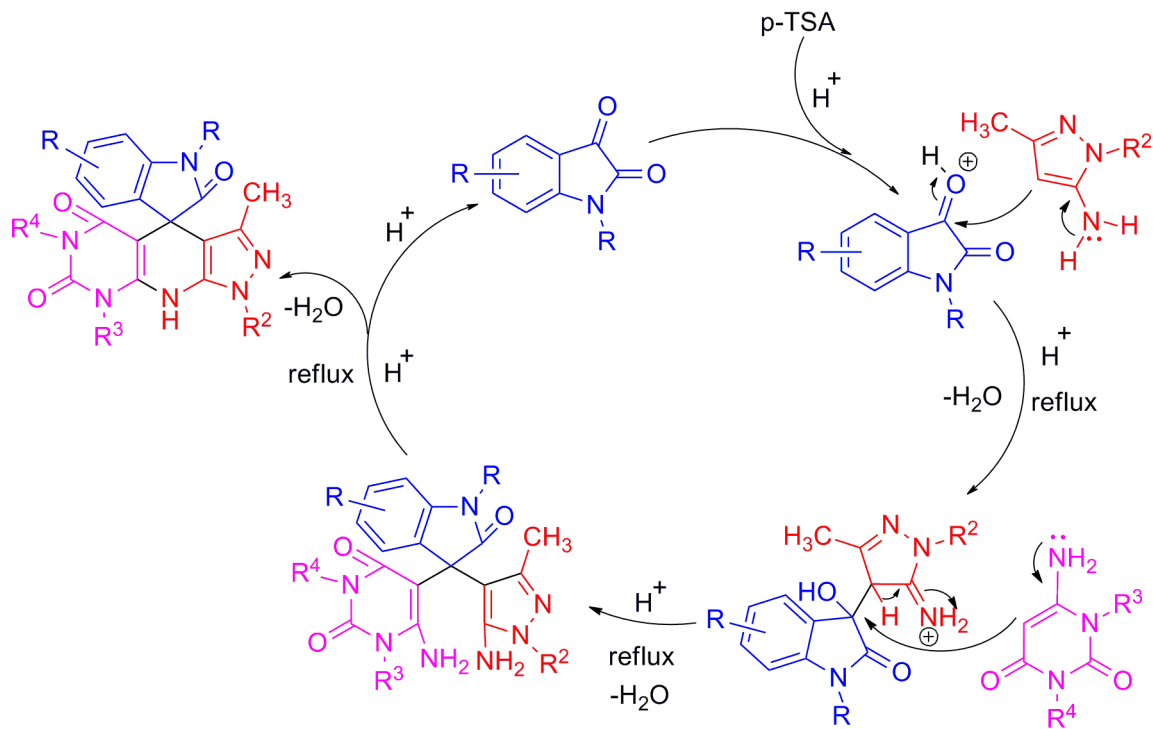
**Scheme 12** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of pyrimidine fused spiro-benzoquinolines in water

## 2.10 Synthesis of spirooxindolyl fused pyrazolopyridine derivatives

A variety of structurally diverse spiroheterocycles were synthesized involving 5-aminopyrazoles (**27**, **27a**). Kalita et al. [50] reported a novel and facile approach for the efficient synthesis of a series of spiro(indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[4',3':5,6]pyrido[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine) derivatives (**28**) *via* one-pot three-component condensation of isatins (**2**), 5-aminopyrazoles (**27**) and 6-aminouracils (**1**, **1a**, **1b**) using 20 mol% of *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) as catalyst in aqueous medium under reflux conditions (Scheme 13). Schematic representation of the plausible mechanism of this conversion is shown in Scheme 14.

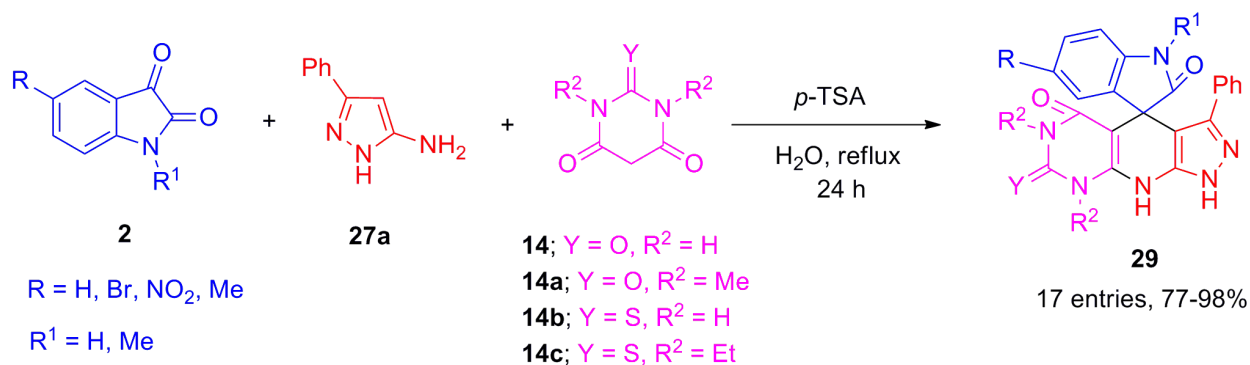


**Scheme 13** *p*-TSA catalyzed synthesis of spiro(indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[4',3':5,6]pyrido[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine) derivatives in an aqueous medium

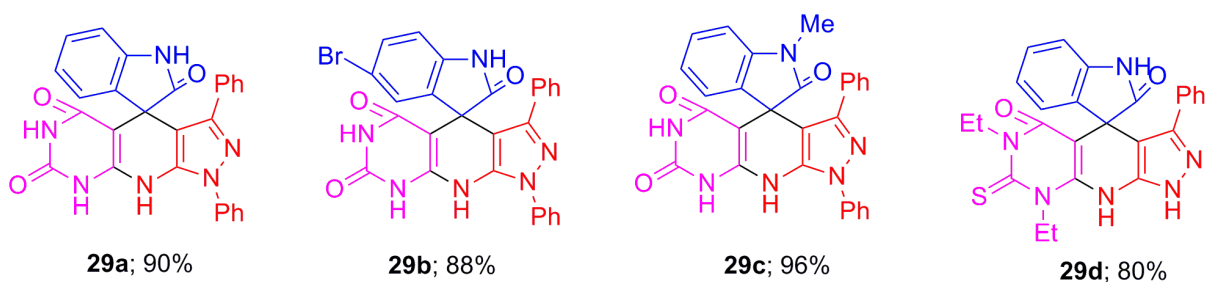


**Scheme 14** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spiro(indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[4',3':5,6]pyrido[2,3-d]pyrimidine) derivatives in an aqueous medium

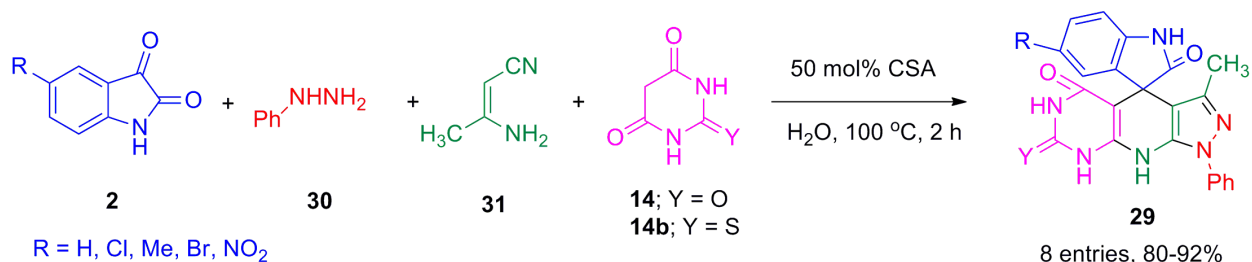
Synthesis of spiro[indoline-pyrazolo[4',3':5,6]pyrido[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine]trione derivatives (**29**) was achieved by Ghahremanzadeh et al. [51] by employing barbituric acids (**14**, **14a**) or thiobarbituric acid derivatives (**14b**, **14c**) instead of 6-aminouracils under the above mentioned conditions (Scheme 15). Later on, in 2014, the same group also synthesized a number of spiro[indoline-pyrazolo[4',3':5,6]pyrido[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine]trione derivatives (**29**) using the inorganic-organic hybrid silica-based tin complex as a catalyst in water under reflux conditions [52]. Balamurugan et al. [53] achieved the synthesis of the same scaffolds (**29**) by the reactions of isatins (**2**), phenylhydrazine (**30**), 3-aminocrotononitrile (**31**) and barbituric acid (**14**)/thiobarbituric acid (**14b**) using camphor-10-sulfonic acid (CSA) as catalyst in water at 100 °C (Scheme 16). This domino reaction proceeded *via* the generation of 3-methyl-1-phenyl-1*H*-pyrazol-5-amine (**27**) (Scheme 17).



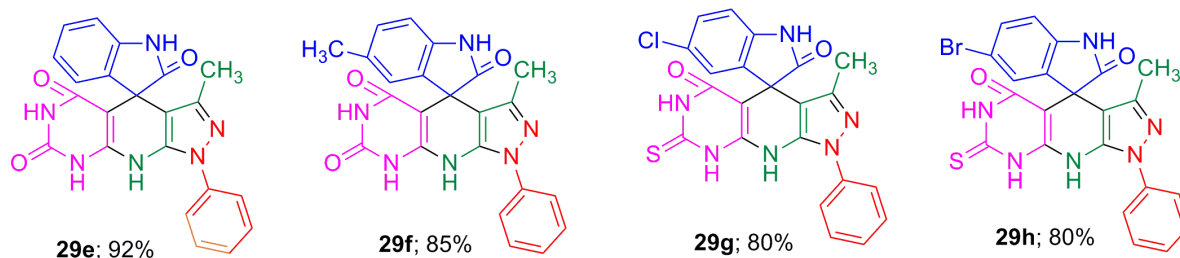
Representatives:



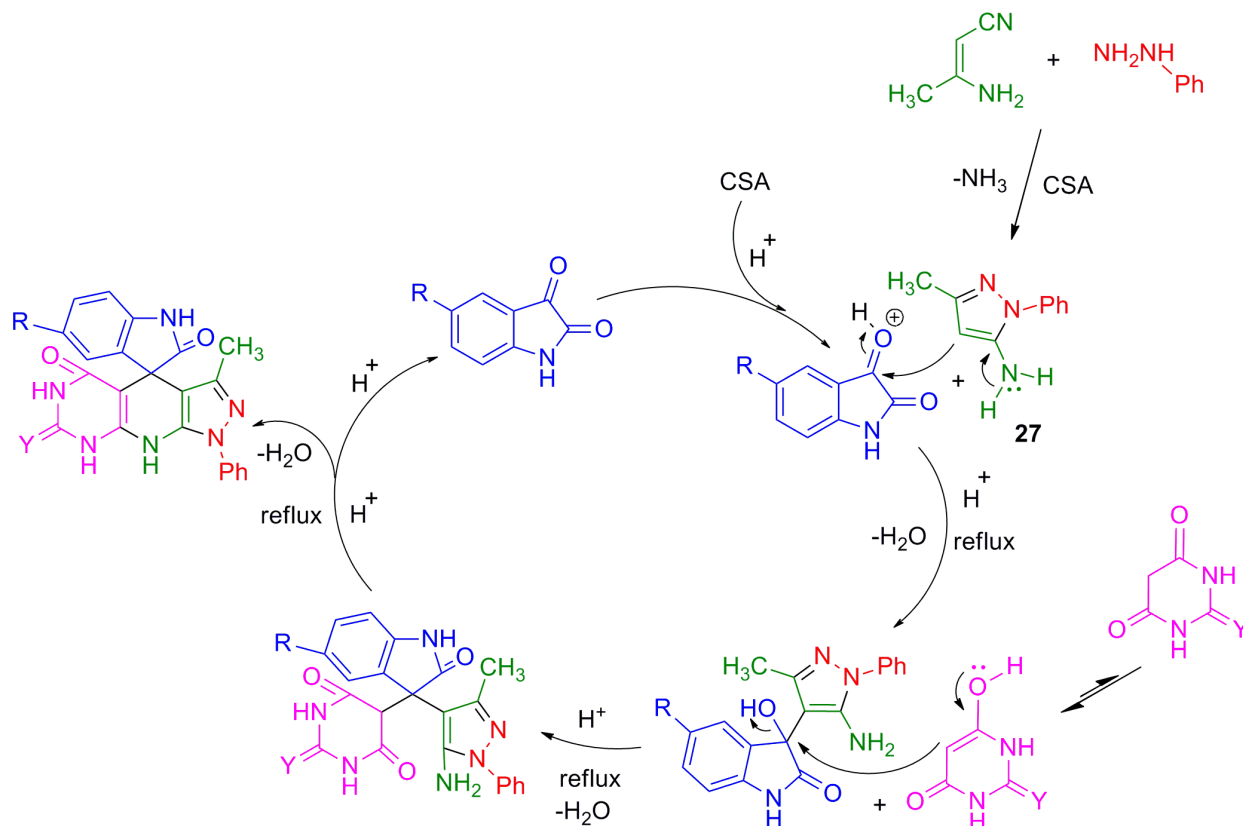
**Scheme 15** *p*-TSA catalyzed synthesis of novel spiro[indoline-pyrazolo[4',3':5,6]pyrido[2,3-d]pyrimidine]trione derivatives in an aqueous medium



Representatives:

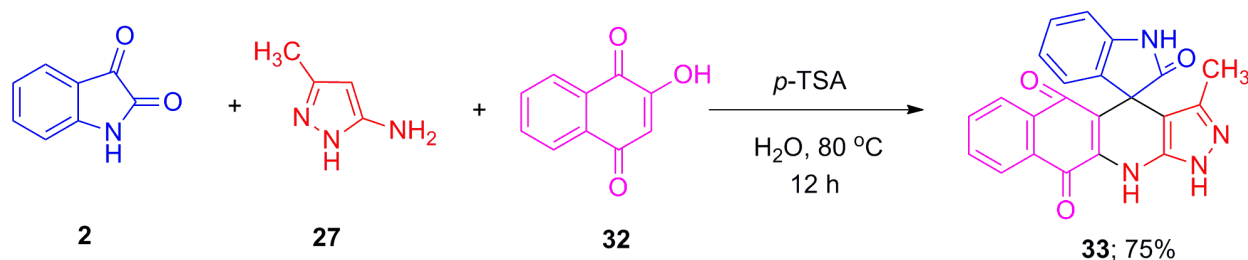


**Scheme 16** CSA catalyzed water-mediated synthesis of spiro[indoline/acenaphthylene-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-b]pyridine] derivatives



**Scheme 17** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spiro[indoline/acenaphthylene-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-b]pyridine derivatives in aqueous medium

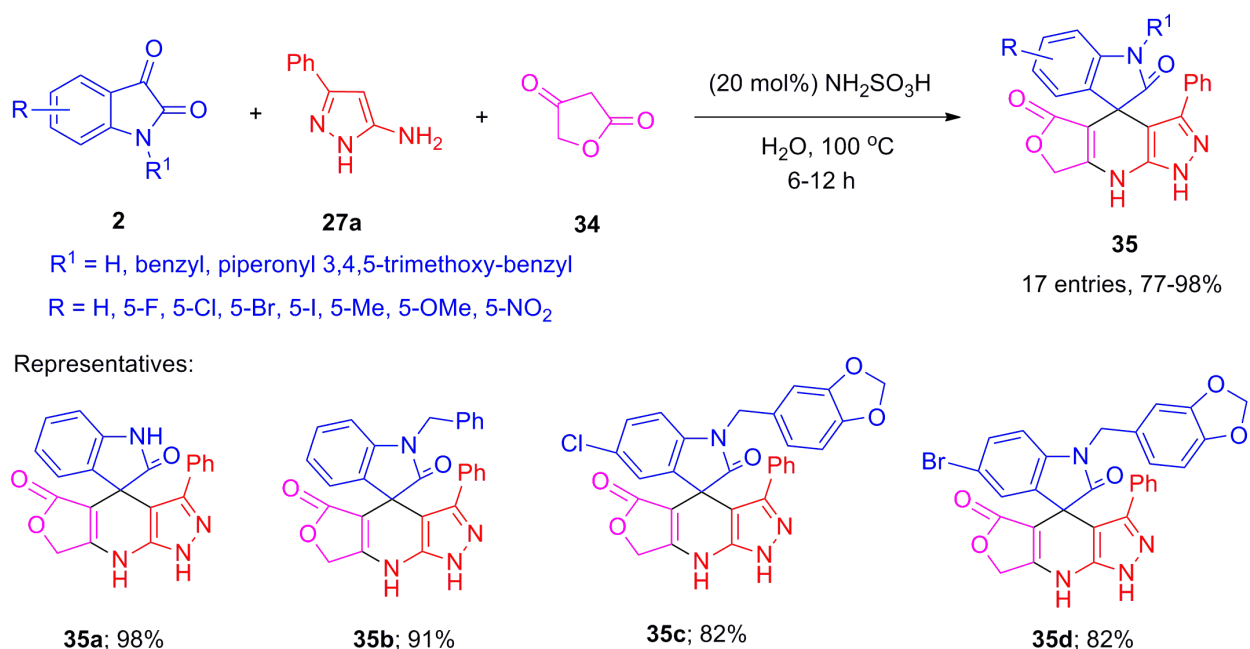
A catalytic amount of *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) was also efficiently catalyzed the reactions of isatin (**2**), 3-methyl-1*H*-pyrazol-5-amine (**27**) and 2-hydroxy-1,4-naphthaquinone (**32**) which afforded the corresponding 3-methylspiro[benzo[*g*]pyrazolo[3,4-*b*]quinoline-4,3'-indoline]-2',5,10(1*H*,11*H*)-trione (**33**) in aqueous medium at 80 °C (Scheme 18) [54].



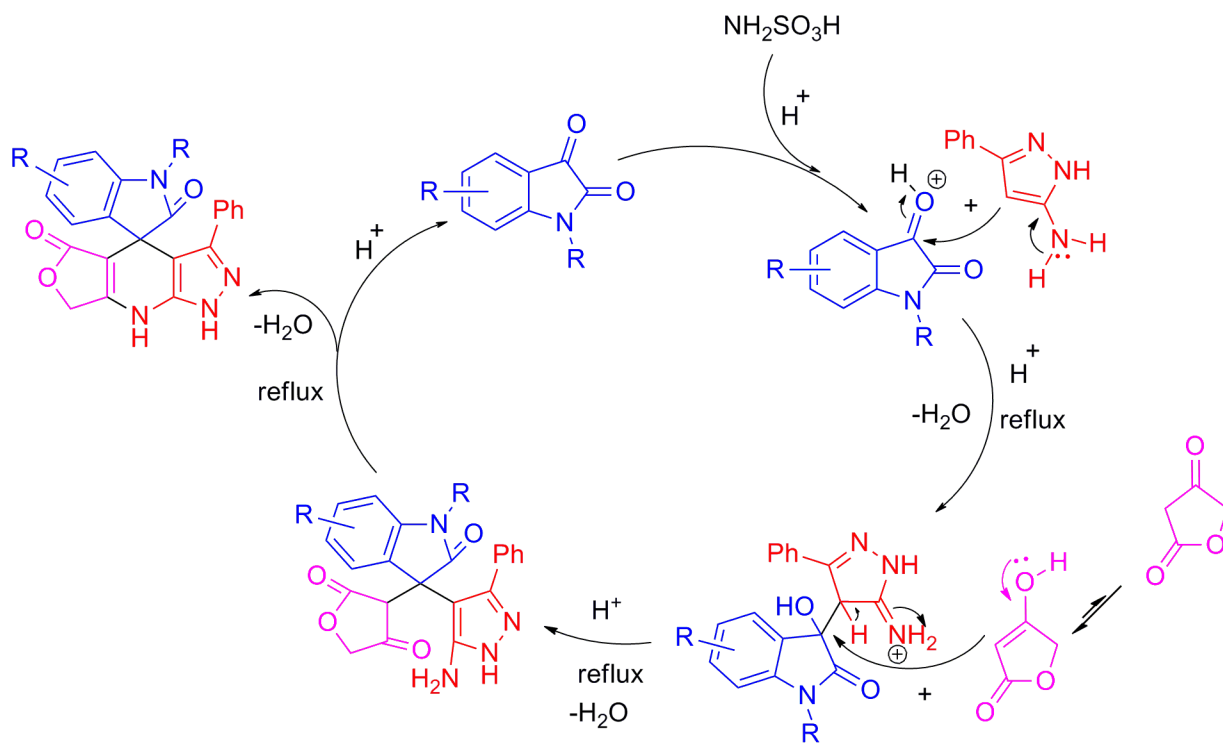
**Scheme 18** *p*-TSA catalyzed synthesis of 3-methylspiro[benzo[*g*]pyrazolo[3,4-*b*]quinoline-4,3'-indoline]-2',5,10(1*H*,11*H*)-trione in aqueous medium



Kamal et al. [55] demonstrated an efficient, facile and environment friendly protocol for the one-pot three-component synthesis of another series of spirooxindole fused pyrazolopyridine derivatives (**35**) *via* the reactions among isatins (**2**), tetronic acid (**34**) and 3-phenyl-1*H*-pyrazol-5-amine (**27a**) involving sulfamic acid as an efficient organocatalyst in aqueous medium at 100 °C (Scheme 19). The catalyst was recovered quantitatively and recycled up to four successive runs without any significant loss in its activities. The mechanism involved in the transformation is described in Scheme 20. Cytotoxic activity of the synthesized compounds was screened against three human cancer cell lines. Compounds **35c** and **35d** showed remarkable cytotoxic activities. Dabiri et al. [56] also synthesized the same series of compounds employing *L*-proline as a catalyst in water under reflux conditions.

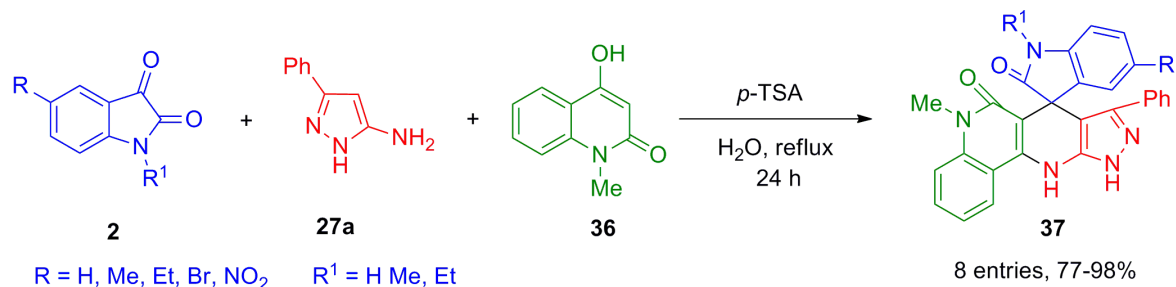


**Scheme 19**  $\text{NH}_2\text{SO}_3\text{H}$  catalyzed synthesis of spiro[furo[3,4-*b*]pyrazolo[4,3-*e*]pyridine-4,3'-indoline]-2',5(1*H*)-dione derivatives in water

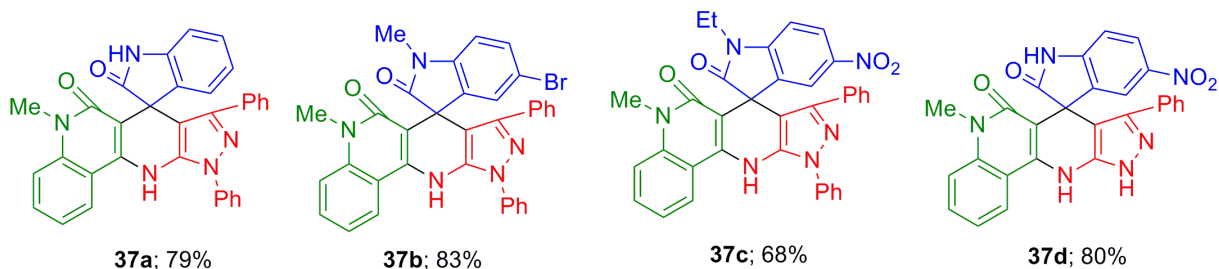


**Scheme 20** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spiro[furo[3,4-*b*]pyrazolo[4,3-*e*]pyridine-4,3'-indoline]-2',5(1*H*)-dione derivatives in aqueous medium

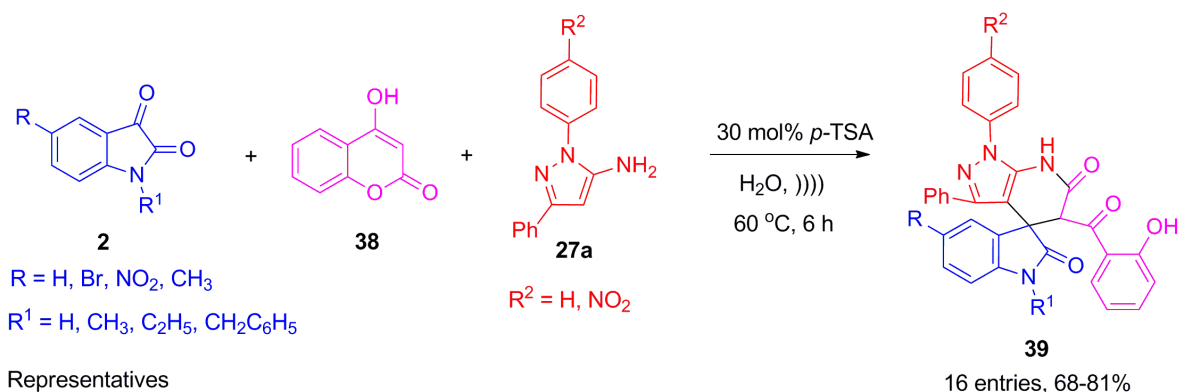
Bazgir and his research group [57] developed another aqueous mediated *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) catalyzed protocol for the synthesis of spiro[chromenopyrazolo-pyridine-indoline]-diones (**37**) starting from isatins (**2**), 3-phenyl-1*H*-pyrazol-5-amine (**27a**) and 4-hydroxy-1-methylquinolin-2(1*H*)-one (**36**) (Scheme 21). Employing *p*-toluene sulfonic acid as catalyst, the same research group also carried out the reactions of isatins (**2**), 3-phenyl-1*H*-pyrazol-5-amine (**27a**) and 4-hydroxycoumarin (**38**) in aqueous media under ultrasonic irradiation at 60 °C. Under these reaction conditions, they obtained a series of unexpected spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-*b*]pyridine]-2,6'(1*H*)-dione derivatives (**39**) (Scheme 22) [58].



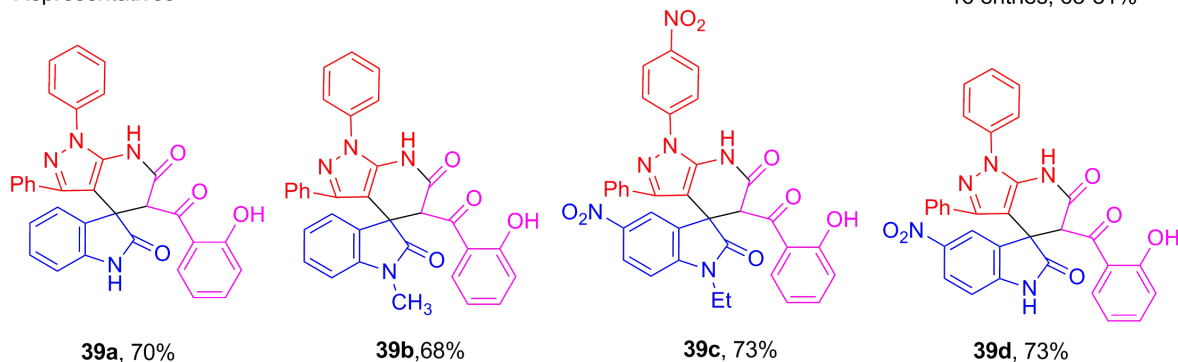
Representatives:



**Scheme 21** *p*-TSA catalyzed synthesis of spiro[chromenopyrazolo-pyridine-indoline]-diones in an aqueous medium



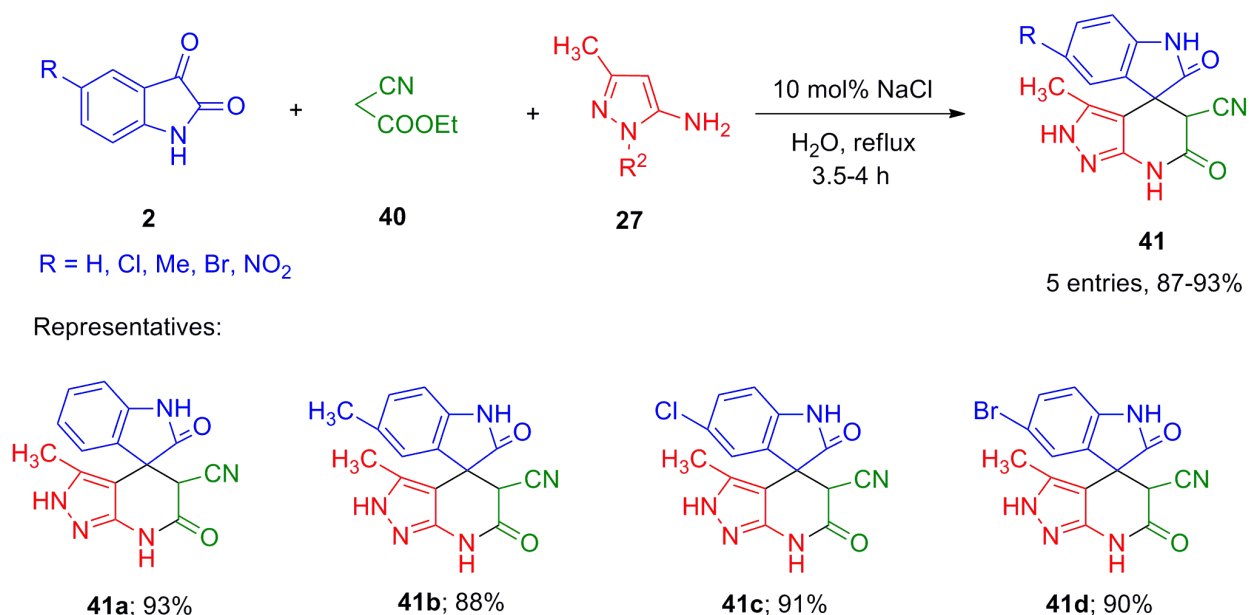
Representatives



**Scheme 22** Ultrasound promoted aqueous mediated synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-b]pyridine]-2,6'(1'H)-dione derivatives

## 2.11 Synthesis of pyrazolopyridinyl spirooxindoles

Dandia et al. [59] demonstrated a simple and efficient approach for the synthesis of a series of biologically interesting spirooxindole fused pyrazolopyridine derivatives (**41**) by the reactions of isatins (**2**), ethyl 2-cyanoacetate (**40**) and 5-amino-3-methylpyrazole (**27**) using a catalytic amount of sodium chloride as catalyst in water under reflux conditions (Scheme 23).

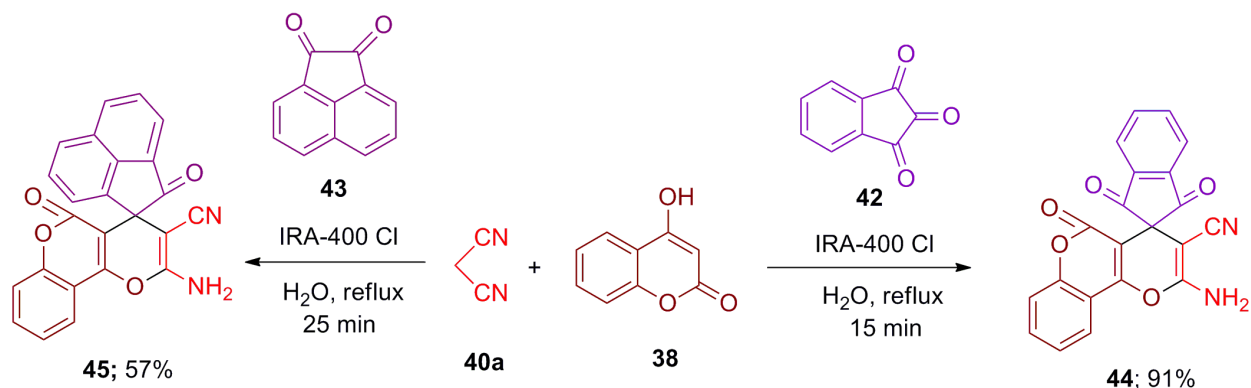


***Scheme 23** NaCl-catalyzed aqueous mediated synthesis of pyrazolopyridinyl spirooxindoles*

## 3. Synthesis of O-containing spiroheterocycles

### 3.1 Synthesis of spirochromenes

A variety of spiroheterocyclic compounds such as spirochromenes (**44**) and spiroacenaphthylene (**45**) were synthesized by the reactions of 4-hydroxycoumarin (**38**), malononitrile (**40a**) and ninhydrin (**42**) acenaphthylene-1,2-dione (**43**) respectively using Amberlite IRA-400 Cl resin as an efficient catalyst in water under reflux conditions (Scheme 24) [60]. The synthesized compounds were found to possess antimicrobial activities.

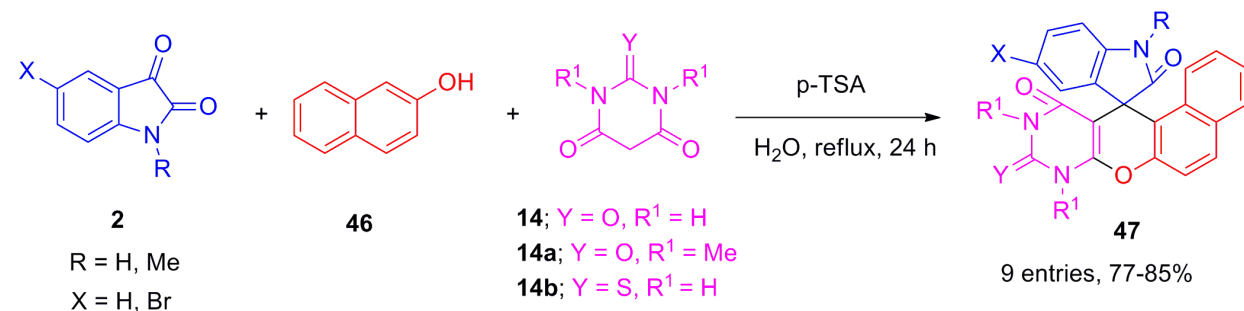


**Scheme 24** Amberlite IRA-400 Cl resin catalyzed synthesis of spirochromenes in an aqueous medium

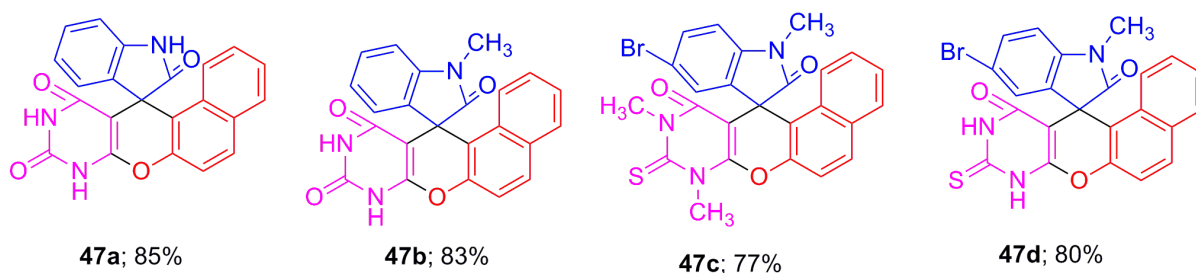
## 4. Synthesis of *N*, *O*-containing spiroheterocycles

### 4.1 Synthesis of spironaphthopyrano[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine derivatives

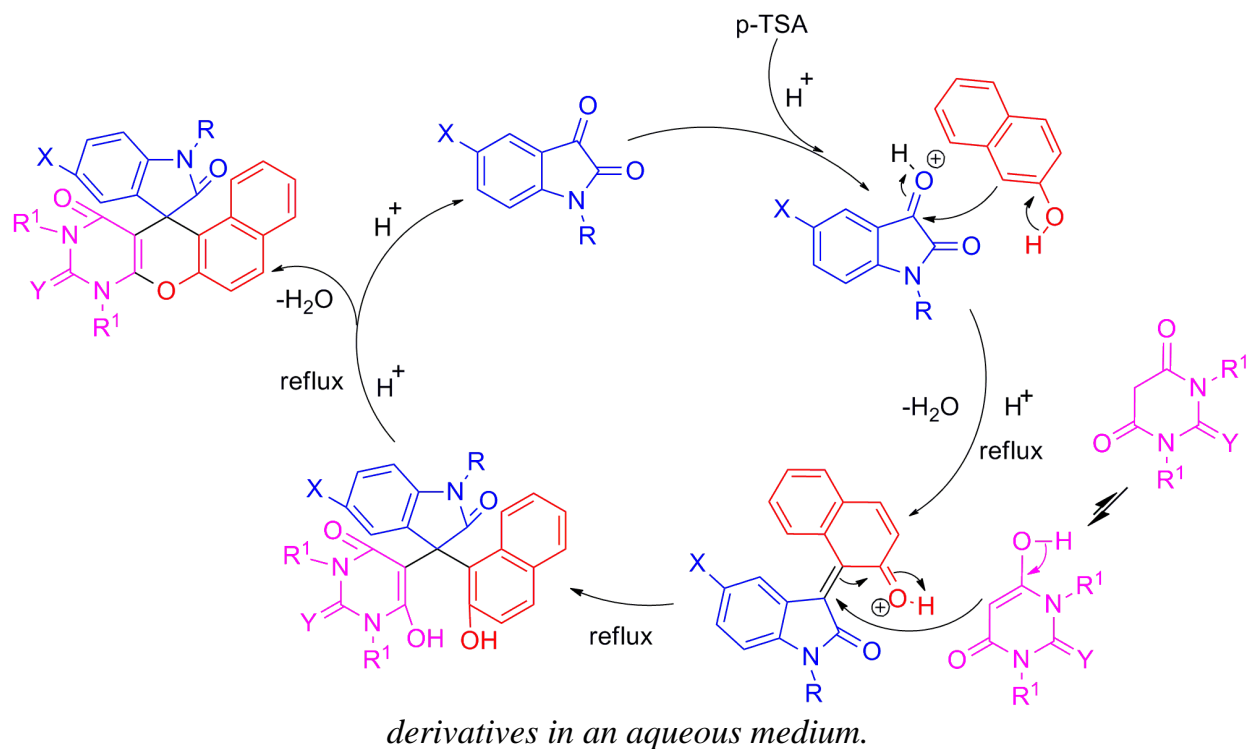
Bazgir and his research group [61] developed another *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) catalyzed efficient protocol for the synthesis of novel spironaphthopyrano[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine-5,3'-indolines (**47**) *via* one-pot three-component cyclocondensation reaction of isatins (**2**), 2-naphthol (**46**) and barbituric acids (**14**, **14a**, **14b**) in aqueous media under reflux conditions (Scheme 25). Scheme 26 shows how two new carbon-carbon and one carbon-oxygen single bonds were formed during this synthesis. When the same reaction was further carried out by Kong et al. [62] employing a catalytic amount of sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), a series of spiro[dihydroquinoline-naphthofuranone] derivatives (**48**) was formed instead of spironaphthopyrano[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine-5,3'-indolines (**47**) in water at 80 °C (Scheme 27). After completion of the reaction, the reaction medium containing surfactant was recovered successfully and recycled up to fifth runs. It was proposed that the reaction underwent through the intramolecular ring-opening annulations protocol (Scheme 28)



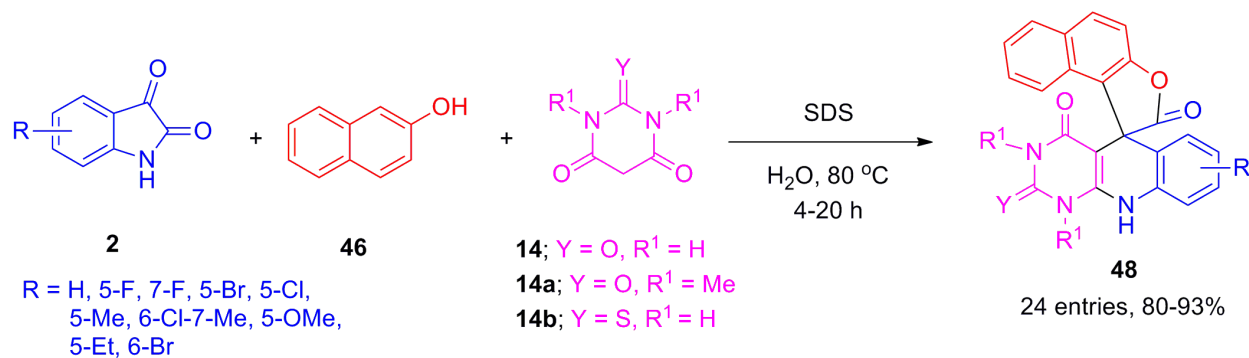
Representatives:



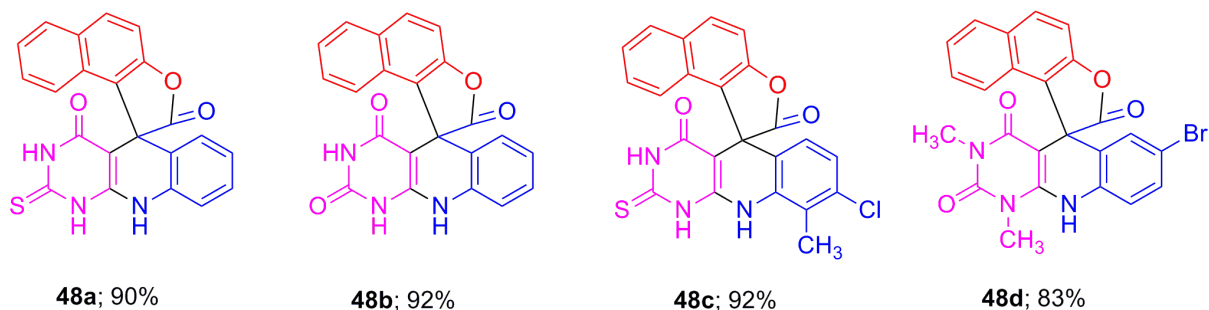
**Scheme 25** *p*-TSA catalyzed synthesis of spironaphthopyrano[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine



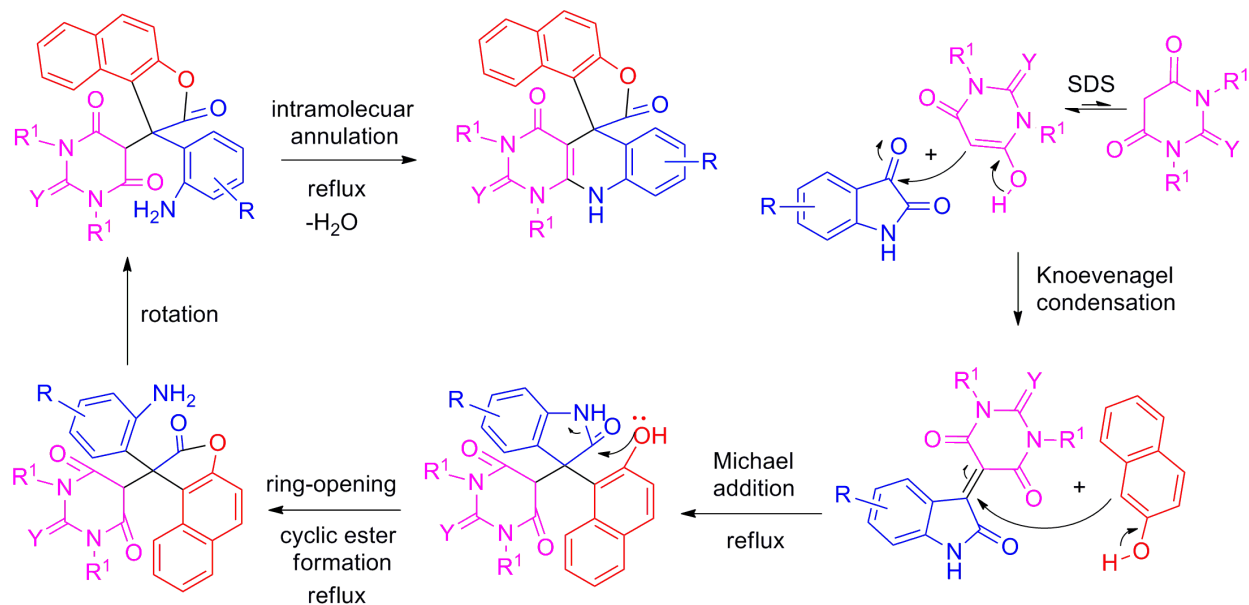
**Scheme 26** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spironaphthopyrano[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine-5,3'-indoline derivatives in water.



Representatives:



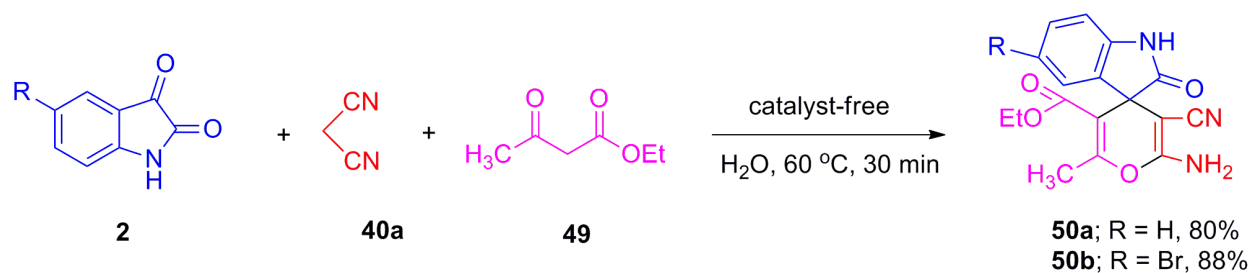
**Scheme 27** SDS catalyzed synthesis of spiro[dihydroquinoline-naphthofuranone] derivatives in an aqueous medium



**Scheme 28** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spiro[dihydroquinoline-naphthofuranone] derivatives in water.

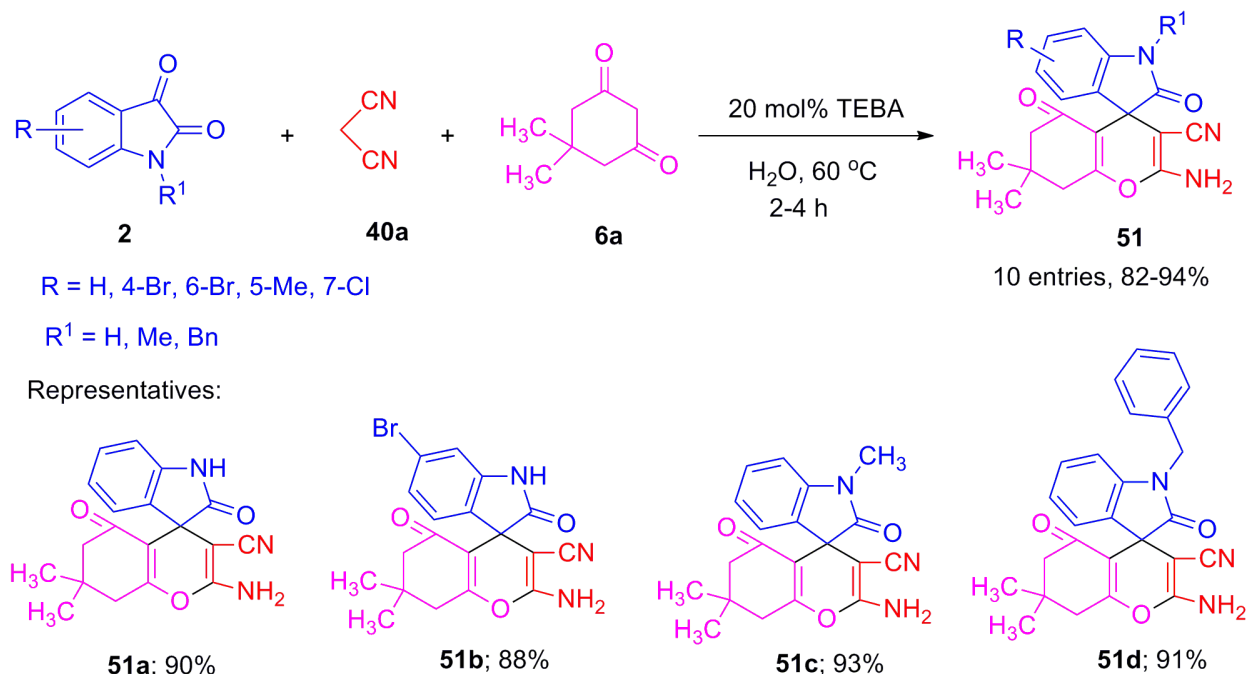
## 4.2 Synthesis of 2-amino-3-cyano-4-indolinon-spiro[pyran or pyran-annulated] heterocycles

In the literature, a number of methods are available for the efficient synthesis of 2-amino-3-cyano-4-indolinon-spiropyran or various pyran-annulated heterocycles *via* one-pot multi-component reactions of isatins, malononitrile and various C-H activated acid derivatives in aqueous media. Zhao et al. [63] developed a simple, efficient, mild and environment friendly protocol for the three-component synthesis of 2'-amino-3'-cyano-2-oxospiro[indoline-3,4'-pyran] derivatives (**50a,50b**) by the reactions of isatins (**2**), malononitrile (**40a**) and ethyl acetoacetate (**49**) in water under catalyst-free conditions at 60 °C (Scheme 29). Zhu et al. [64] prepared another series of biologically interesting 2-amino-3-cyano-spiro[chromene-4,3'-indoline] derivatives (**51**) starting from isatins (**2**), malononitrile (**40a**) and dimedone (**6a**) in the presence of a catalytic amount of triethylbenzylammonium chloride (TEBA) in aqueous medium under at 60 °C (Scheme 30).



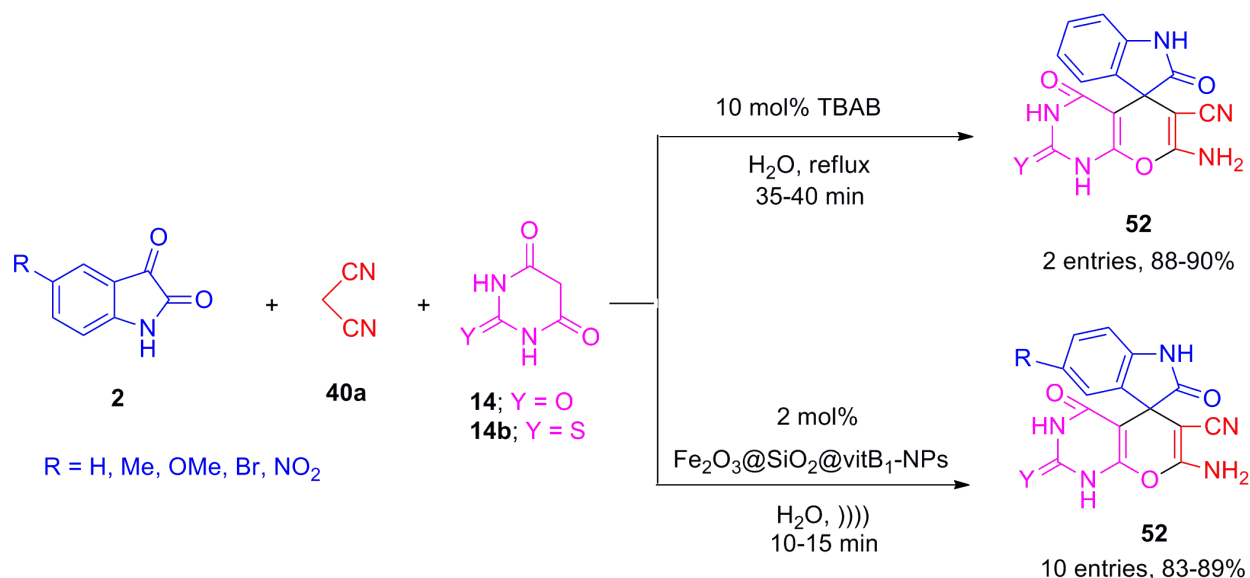
**Scheme 29** Synthesis of 2'-amino-3'-cyano-2-oxospiro[indoline-3,4'-pyran] derivatives in water



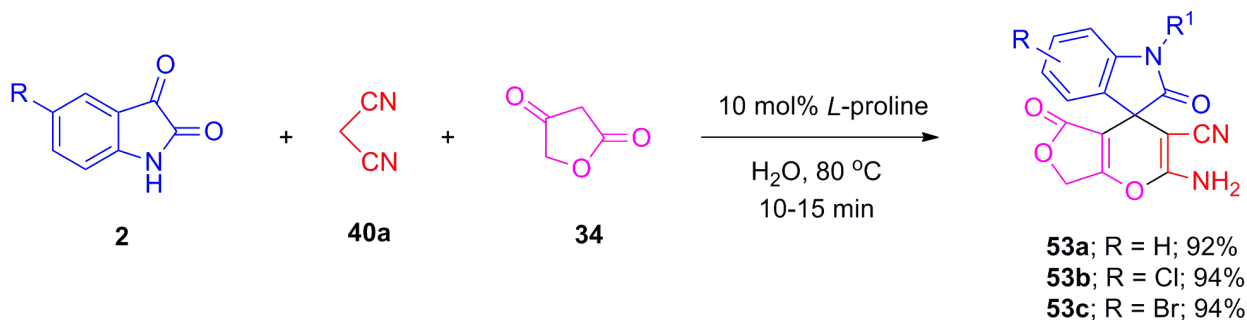


**Scheme 30** TEBA-catalyzed water-mediated synthesis of 2-amino-3-cyano-spiro[chromene-4,3'-indoline] derivatives

In 2011, Mobinikhaledi et al. [65] reported a simple and efficient water-mediated protocol for the synthesis of 7'-amino-spiro[indoline-3,5'-pyrano[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine]-6'-carbonitrile derivatives (**52**) *via* the condensation reaction of isatins (**2**), malononitrile (**40a**) and barbituric acid (**14**) thiobarbituric acid (**14b**) using tetrabutylammonium bromide (TBAB) as catalyst under reflux conditions (Scheme 31). Later on, in 2016, Singh et al. [66] carried out the same reaction by using thiamine hydrochloride encapsulated silica supported magnetic nanoparticles (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub>@vitB1 NPs) in water under ultrasonic-irradiated conditions (Scheme 31). Li et al. [67] demonstrated *L*-proline catalyzed synthesis of 2-amino-3-cyano-spiro[furo[3,4-*b*]pyran-2'-oxo-4,3'-indoline] derivatives (**53**) starting from substituted isatins (**2**), malononitrile (**40a**) and tetronic acid (**34**) in aqueous media at 80 °C (Scheme 32).



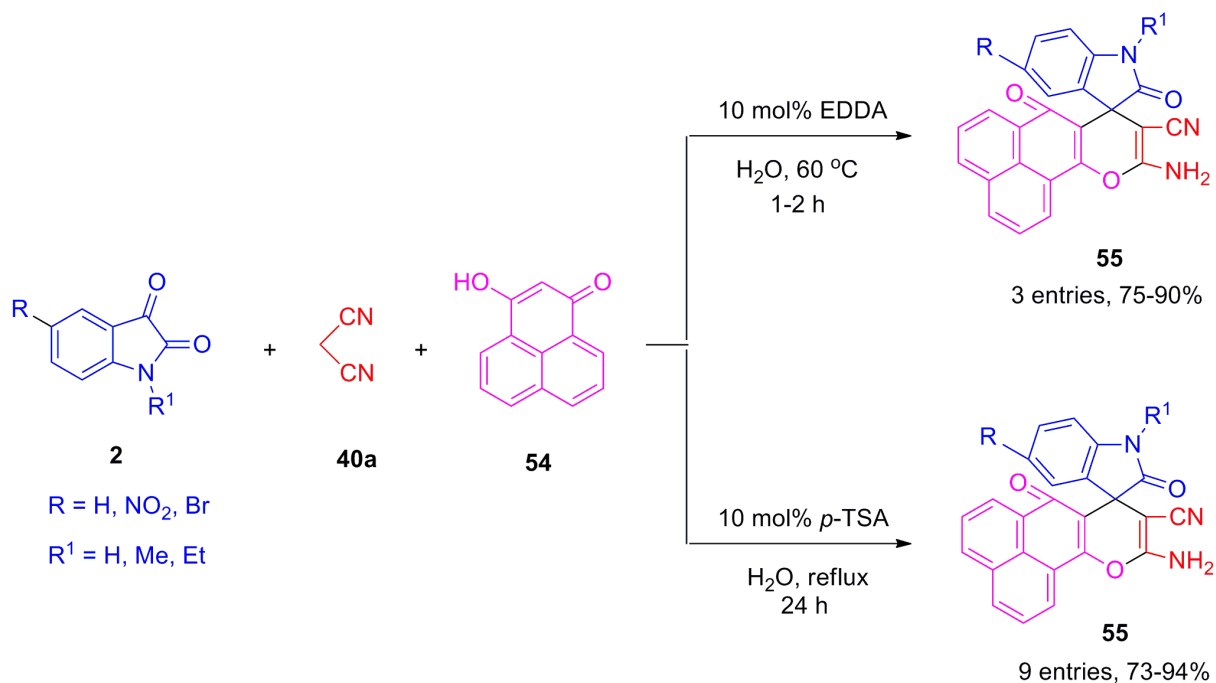
**Scheme 31** Synthesis of 7'-amino-spiro[indoline-3,5'-pyrano[2,3-d]pyrimidine]-6'-carbonitrile derivatives in water



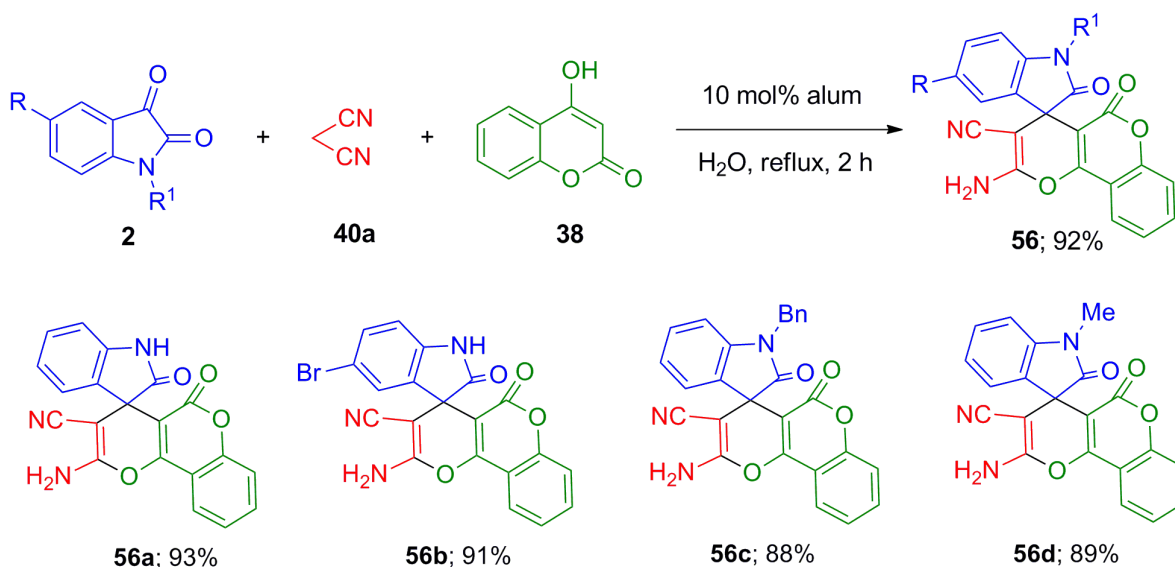
**Scheme 32** L-proline-catalyzed synthesis of 2-amino-3-cyano-spiro[furo[3,4-b]pyran-2'-oxo-4,3'-indoline] derivatives in aqueous medium

Synthesis of a series of biologically interesting 10'-amino-spiro[indole-3,8'-phenaleno[1,2-*b*]pyran]-9'-carbonitriles (**55**) was achieved by Hari et al. [68] via the reactions of isatins (**2**), malononitrile (**40a**) and 3-hydroxy-1*H*-phenalen-1-one (**54**) in the presence of a catalytic amount of ethylenediamine diacetate (EDDA) as catalyst in water at 60 °C (Scheme 33). Ghahremanzadeh et al. [69] synthesized the same series of compounds using *p*-toluene sulfonic acid (*p*-TSA) as a catalyst in aqueous media

(Scheme 33). Karimi et al. [70] have reported the synthesis of 2'-amino-3'-cyano-spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[3,2-*c*]chromene] derivatives (**56**) *via* one-pot three-component reactions of isatins (**2**), malononitrile (**40a**) and 4-hydroxycoumarin (**38**) using alum as a catalyst in water under heating conditions (Scheme 34).

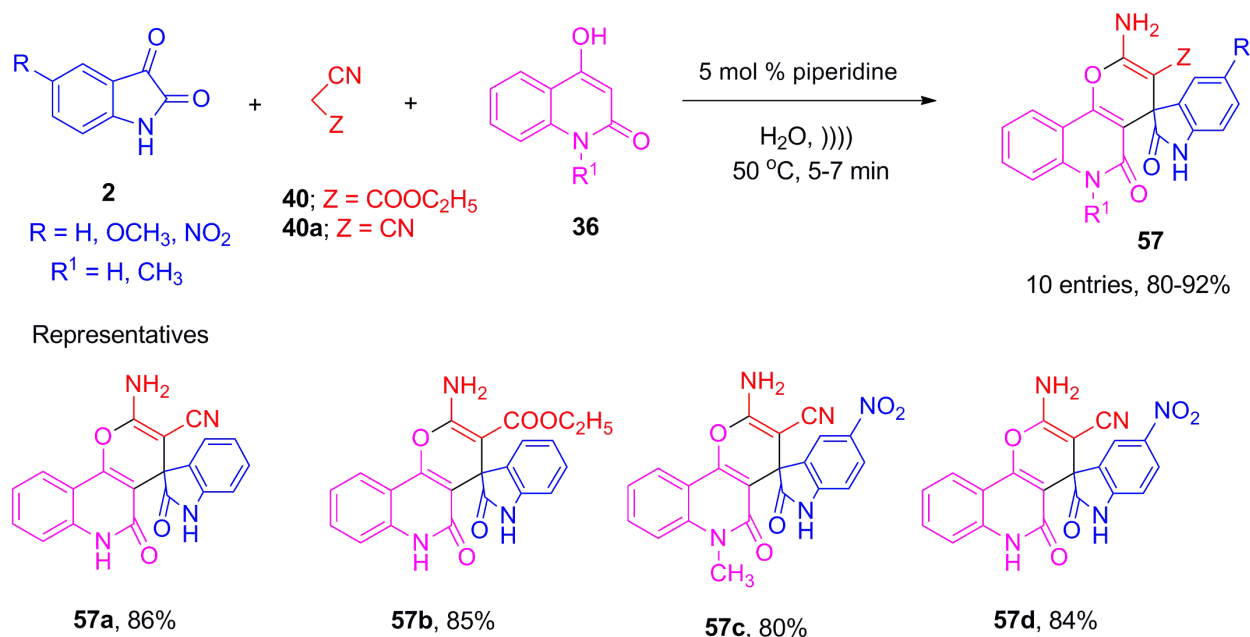


**Scheme 33** Synthesis of 10'-amino-spiro[indole-3,8'-phenaleno[1,2-*b*]pyran]-9'-carbonitriles in water



**Scheme 34** Alum-catalyzed synthesis of 2'-amino-3'-cyano-spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[3,2-*c*]chromenes] in water

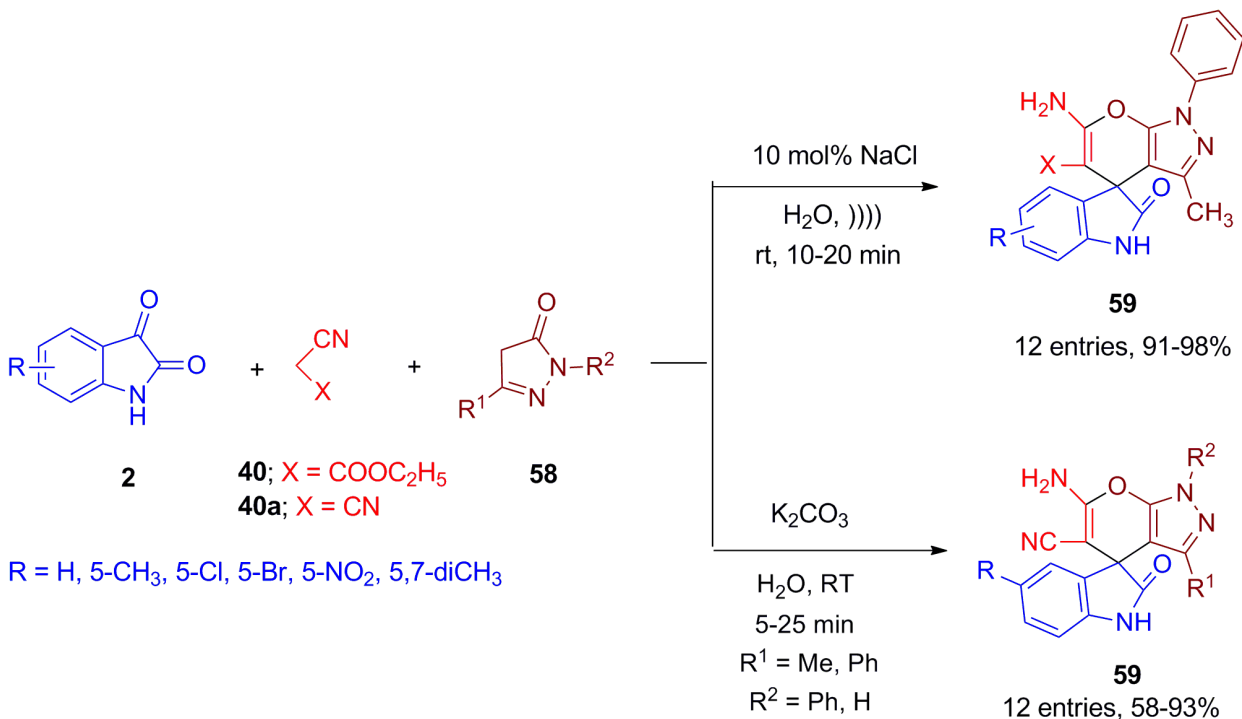
A simple, rapid and ultrasound-assisted protocol was developed for the efficient synthesis of a series of biologically promising spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[3,2-*c*]quinoline derivatives (**57**) starting from isatins (**2**), malononitrile (**40a**) or ethyl cyanoacetate (**40**) and 4-hydroxy-2*H*-quinolin-2-one (**36**) using a 5 mol% piperidine as catalyst in water under ultrasonic irradiation at 50 °C (Scheme 35)[71]. Another ultrasound-assisted, environmentally benign protocol was developed by Dandia et al. [72] for the efficient synthesis of a series of biologically interesting spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazoles (**59**) *via* a one-pot three-component reactions of substituted isatins (**2**), ethyl cyanoacetate (**40**) or malononitrile (**40a**) and 3-methyl-1-phenyl-2-pyrazolin-5-one (**58**) using sodium chloride as catalyst in water at room temperature (Scheme 36). Liu et al. [73] accomplished the same reactions using K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> as a catalyst in water at room temperature (Scheme 36).



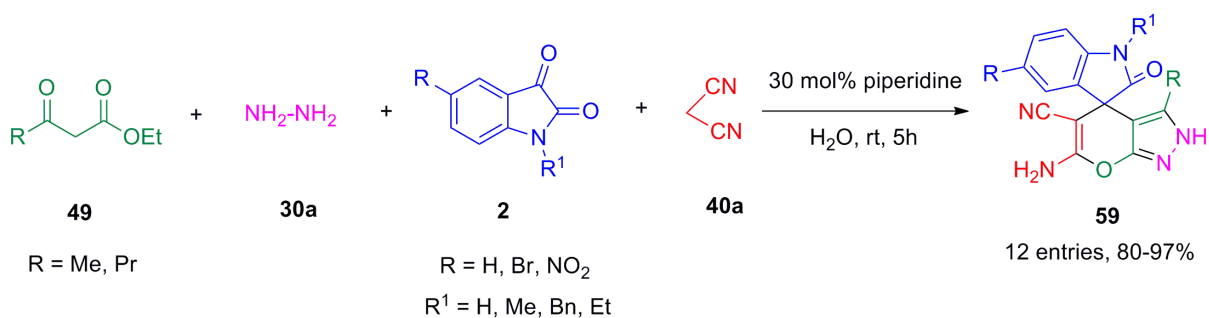
**Scheme 35** Ultrasound-assisted synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[3,2-*c*]quinoline in aqueous media

Four-component synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazoles (**59**) has been achieved by the reactions of  $\beta$ -ketoester (**49**), hydrazine (**30a**), isatins (**2**) and malononitrile (**40a**) using 30 mol% piperidine as catalyst under conventional stirring conditions in water at room temperature (Scheme 37) [74]. Compounds synthesized were found to possess antibacterial activities. Recently, in 2016, catalytic amount of nano-

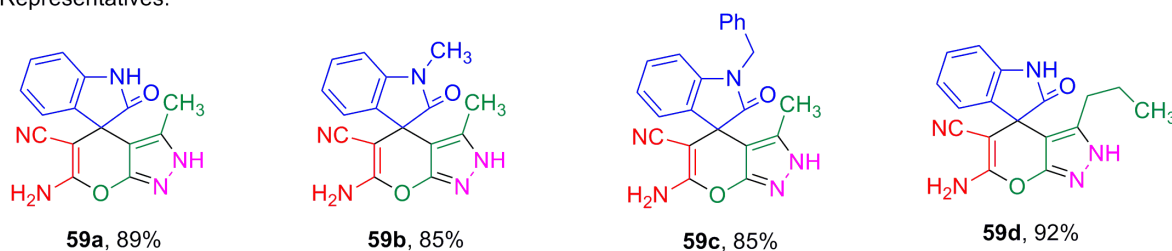
CeO<sub>2</sub> was employed for the synthesis of another series of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazoles (**59**) *via* one-pot four-component reactions of  $\beta$ -ketoester (**49**), aryl hydrazine (**30**), isatins (**2**) and malononitrile (**40a**) in water at 90 °C (Scheme 38) [75]. The compounds synthesized possess antioxidant as well as antibacterial activities.



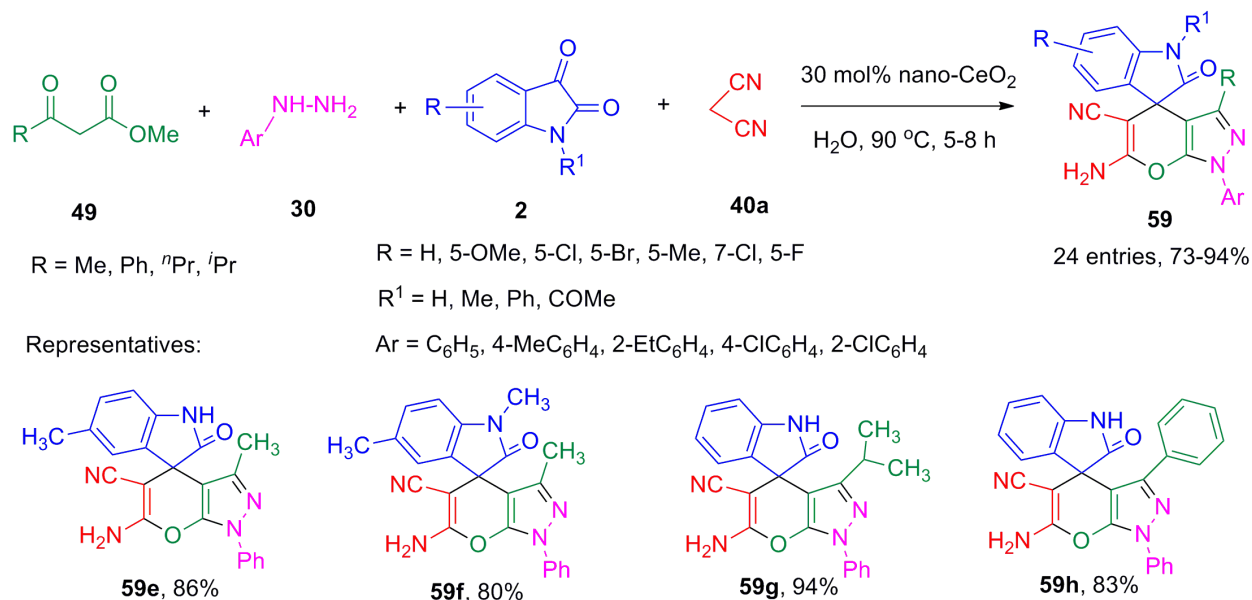
**Scheme 36** Three-component synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazoles in aqueous media



Representatives:



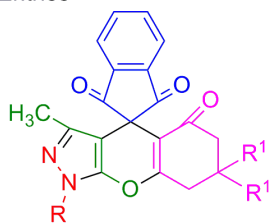
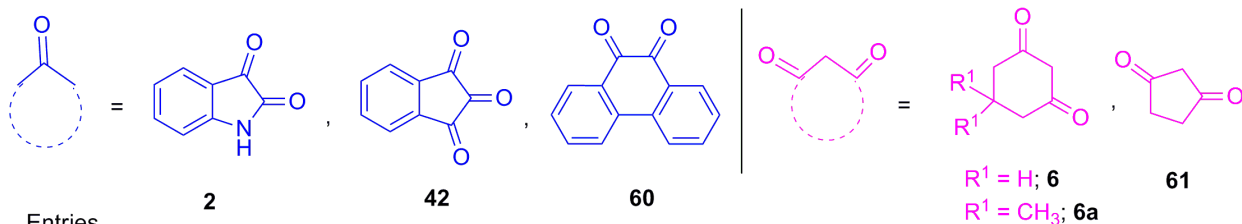
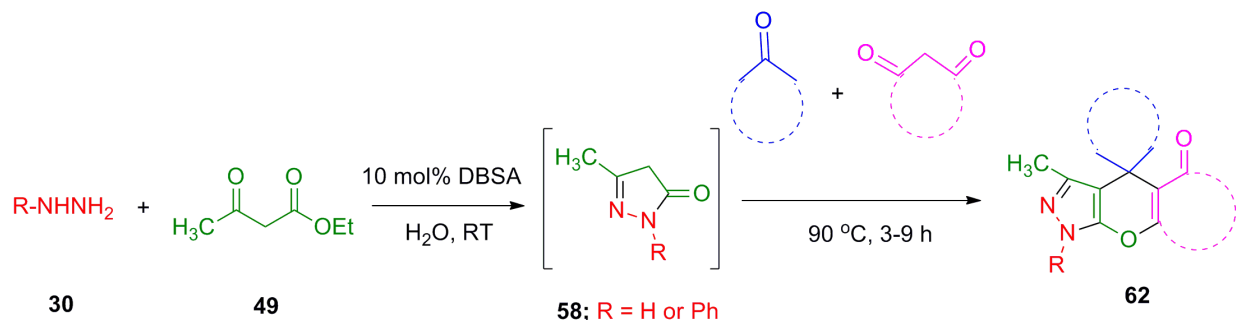
**Scheme 37** Piperidine-catalyzed four-component synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4'-pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazoles in aqueous media



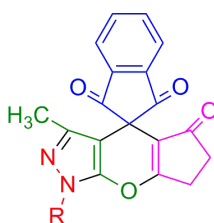
**Scheme 38** Nano-CeO<sub>2</sub>-catalyzed four-component synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,4-pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazole] derivatives in aqueous media

### 4.3 Synthesis of spiro-fused pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazoles

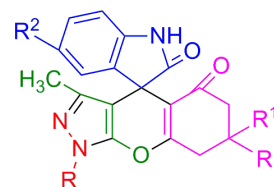
Das and his research group [76] reported the synthesis of highly functionalized diverse tricyclic 4-spiro pyrano[2,3-*c*]pyrazoles (**62**) through one-pot four-component tandem cyclization reactions among hydrazines (**30**), ethyl acetoacetate (**49**), cyclic ketones (**2,42,60**) and structurally diverse cyclic 1,3-diketones (**6,6a,61**) using catalytic amount of *p*-dodecylbenzenesulphonic acid as an efficient catalyst in water at 90 °C (Scheme 39). *In situ* generated pyrazolone (**58**) was the key intermediate of this reaction. This developed protocol possessed some of the major benefits such as operational simplicity, simple workup procedure, a variety of substrates, excellent yields and use of water as solvent etc.



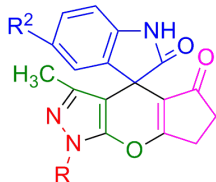
R = H,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ; **62a**, 96%  
 R =  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ; **62b**, 87%  
 R =  $4\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ; **62c**, 82%  
 R =  $4\text{-CNC}_6\text{H}_4$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ; **62d**, 86%  
 R = H,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ; **62e**, 95%  
 R =  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ; **62f**, 88%  
 R =  $4\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ; **62g**, 83%  
 R =  $4\text{-CNC}_6\text{H}_4$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ; **62h**, 87%



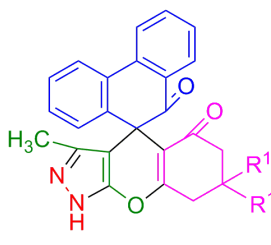
R = H; **62i**, 94%  
 R =  $4\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_4$ ; **62j**, 78%



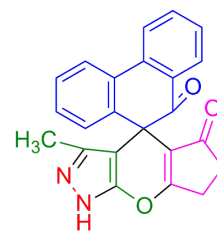
R = H,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{Br}$ ; **62k**, 93%  
 R =  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{Br}$ ; **62l**, 86%  
 R =  $4\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{Br}$ ; **62m**, 80%  
 R = H,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{H}$ ; **62n**, 94%  
 R =  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{H}$ ; **62o**, 88%  
 R =  $4\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{H}$ ; **62p**, 82%



R = H,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{Br}$ ; **62q**, 94%  
 R =  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{Br}$ ; **62r**, 84%  
 R =  $4\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_4$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{Br}$ ; **62s**, 78%  
 R = H,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{H}$ ; **62t**, 92%  
 R =  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{H}$ ; **62u**, 86%  
 R =  $4\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_4$ ,  $\text{R}^2 = \text{H}$ ; **62v**, 79%



$\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$ ; **62w**, 78%  
 $\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$ ; **62x**, 76%

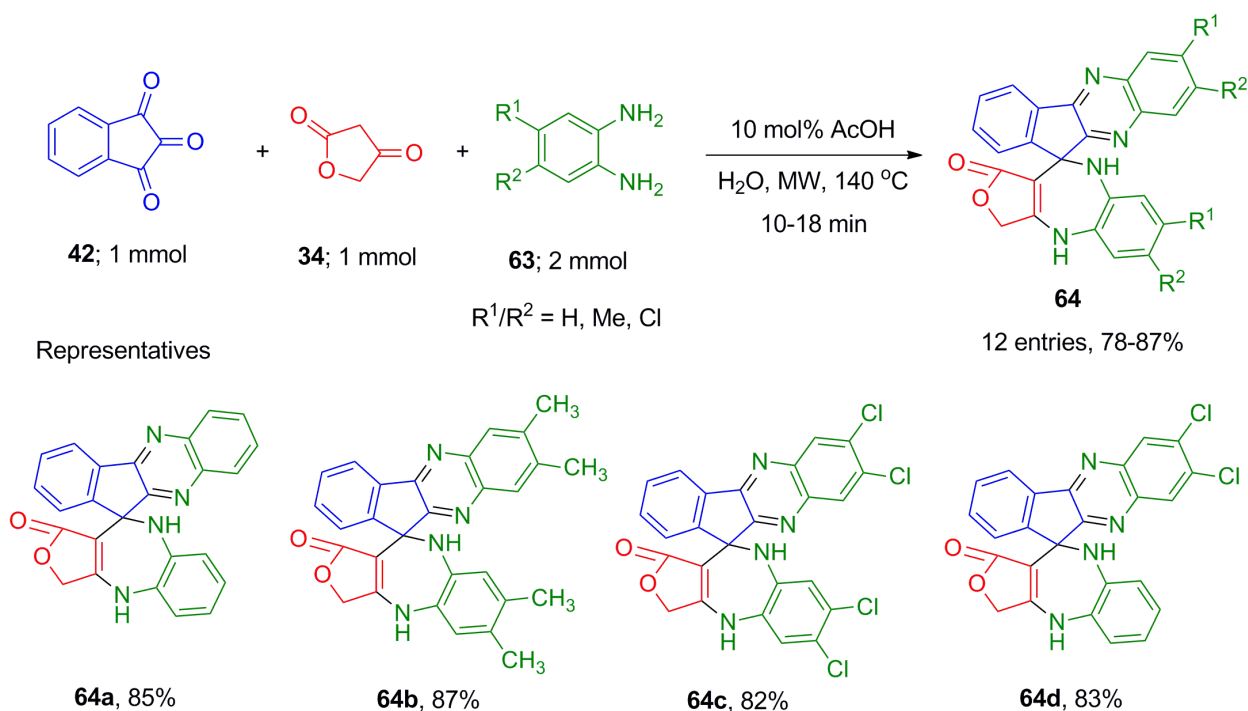


**62y**, 75%

**Scheme 39** DBSA-catalyzed water mediated synthesis of spiro-fused pyrano[2,3-c]pyrazoles

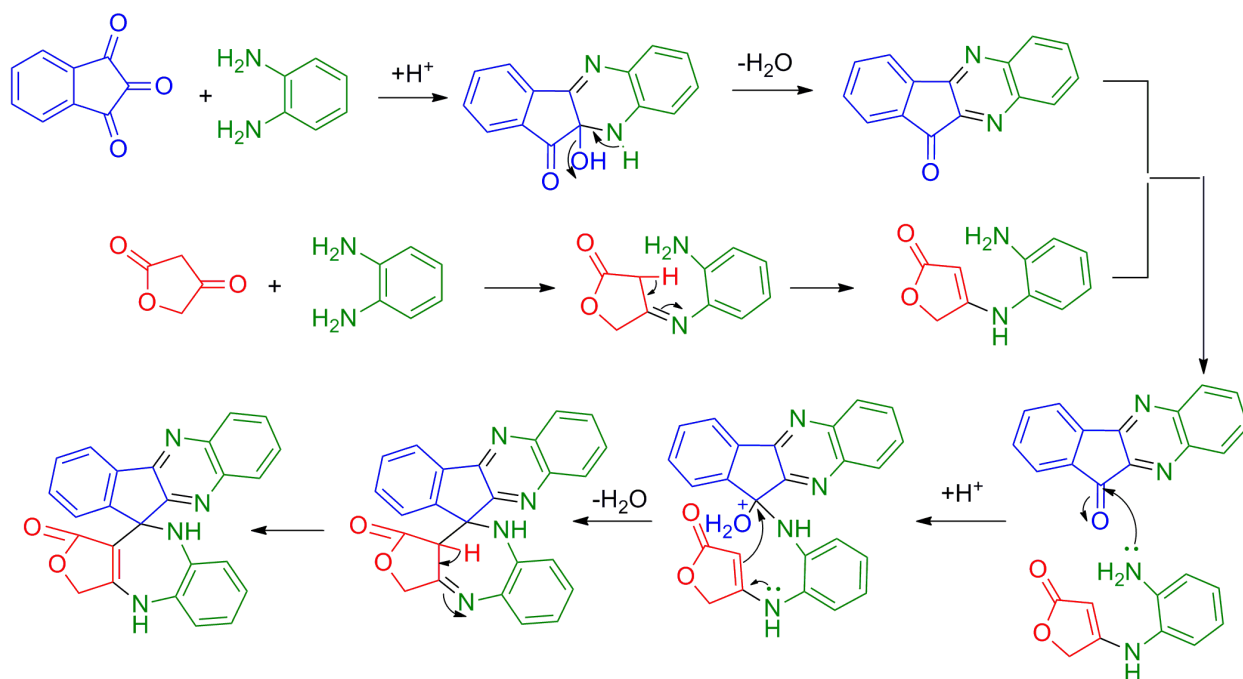
#### 4.4 Synthesis of spiro-fused benzo[b]furo[3,4-*e*][1,4]diazepines

Cheng et al. [77] demonstrated rapid, efficient, microwave-assisted domino-cyclization reactions involving one equivalent of ninhydrin (**42**), one equivalent of tetronic acid (**34**) and two equivalents of benzene-1,2-diamines (**63**) to synthesize a series of spiro-substituted benzo[b]furo[3,4-*e*][1,4]diazepine derivatives (**64**) in the presence of a catalytic amount of acetic acid in aqueous media at 140 °C (Scheme 40). Scheme 41 shows how five new single bonds were formed in this transformation.



**Scheme 40** Acetic acid-catalyzed synthesis of spiro-fused benzo[b]furo[3,4-*e*][1,4]diazepines in water.

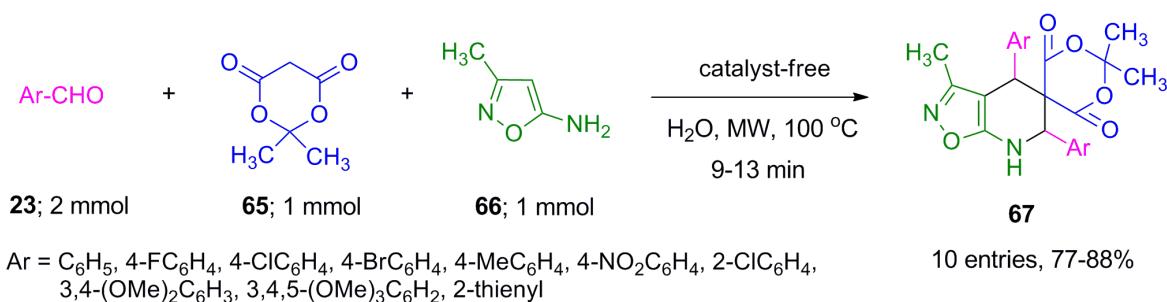




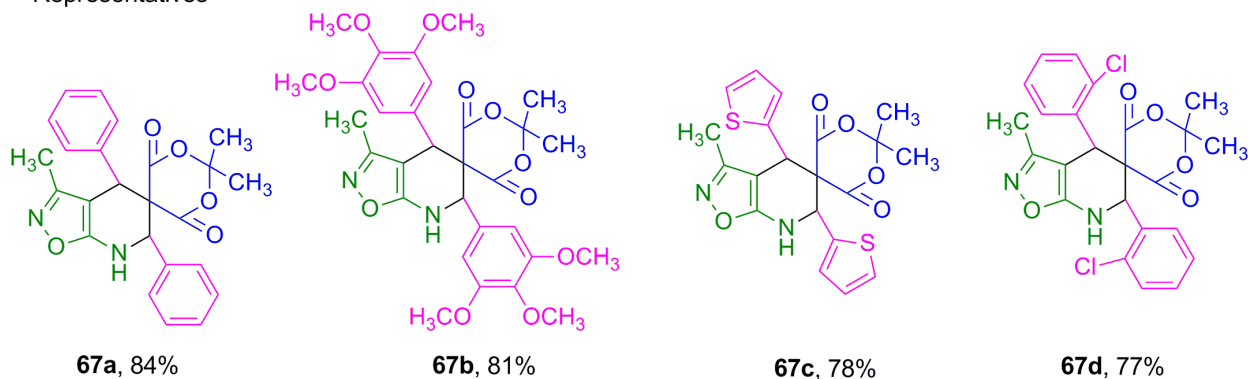
**Scheme 41** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spiro-substituted benzo[*b*]furo[3,4-*e*][1,4]diazepine derivatives in an aqueous medium

#### 4.5 Synthesis of spiro{[1,3]dioxanopyridine}-4,6-dione derivatives

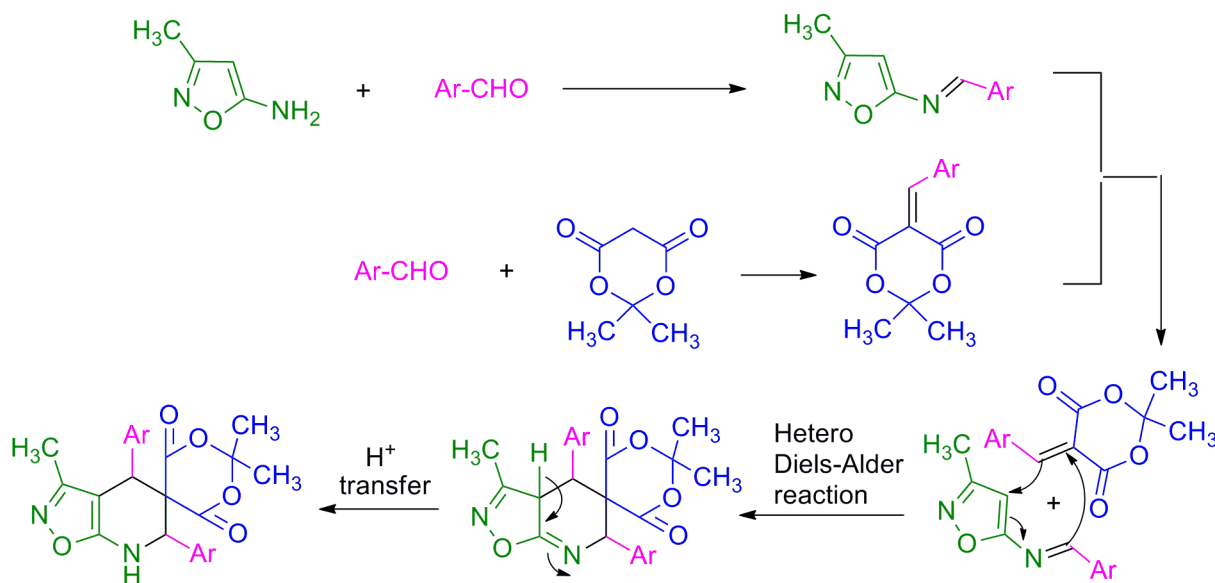
A series of biologically interesting spiro[[1,3]dioxane-5,5'-isoxazolo[5,4-*b*]pyridine] derivatives (**67**) was synthesized by Ma et al. [78] *via* the domino-cyclization reactions involving two equivalents of various aldehydes (**23**), one equivalent of Meldrum's acid (**65**) and one equivalent of 3-methylisoxazol-5-amine (**8**) under microwave-assisted catalyst-free conditions at 100 °C (Scheme 42). It was proposed that the transformation followed the hetero Diels-Alder reaction pathway (Scheme 43).



Representatives



**Scheme 42** Microwave-assisted synthesis of spiro[[1,3]dioxane-5,5'-isoxazolo[5,4-b]pyridine] derivatives under catalyst-free conditions in water

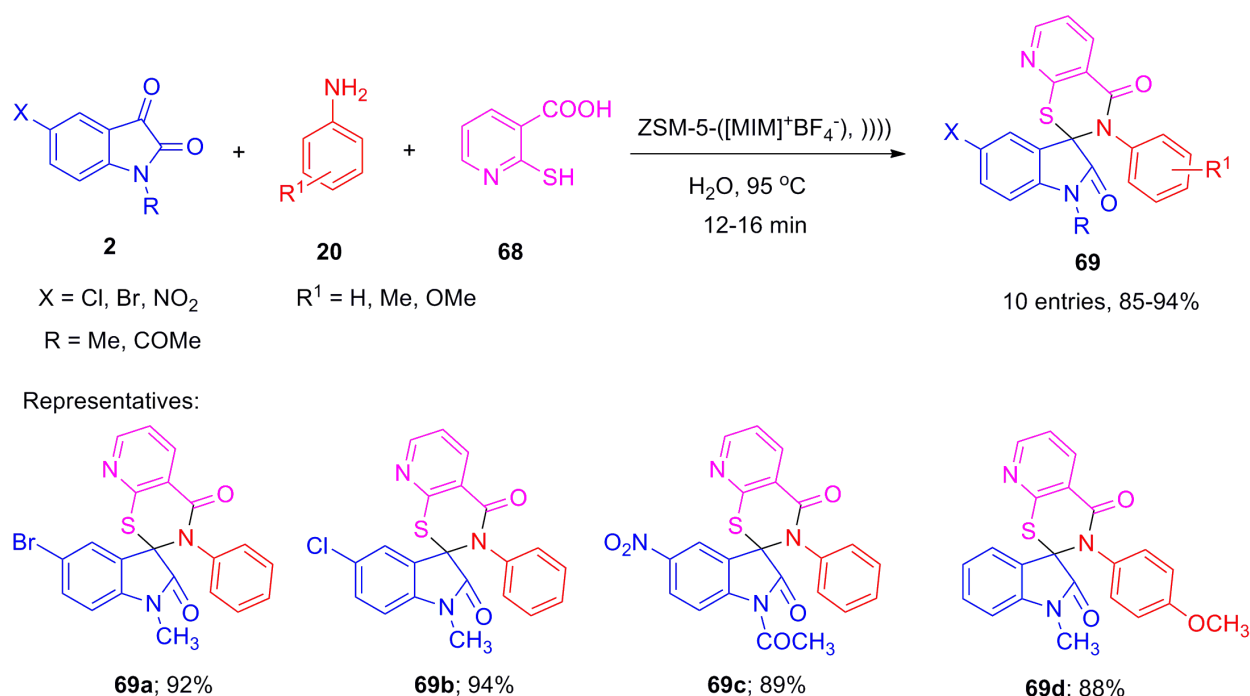


**Scheme 43** Plausible mechanism for the synthesis of spiro[[1,3]dioxane-5,5'-isoxazolo[5,4-b]pyridine] derivatives in an aqueous medium

## 5. Synthesis of *N*, *S*-containing spiroheterocycles

### 5.1 Synthesis of spiro[indole-pyrido[3,2-*e*]thiazine] derivatives

Arya et al. [79] used zeolite supported Brønsted-acid ionic liquid as an efficient catalyst for the synthesis of spiro[indole-pyrido[3,2-*e*]thiazine] derivatives (**69**) *via* three-component reactions of isatins (**2**), substituted anilines (**20**) and 2-mercaptopyridine (**68**) under ultrasonic irradiation in water at 95 °C (Scheme 44). Under the conventional stirring condition, the yields of the desired products were very low. After completion of the reaction, the ionic liquid was recovered quantitatively and reused five times without any loss in its catalytic efficacies.

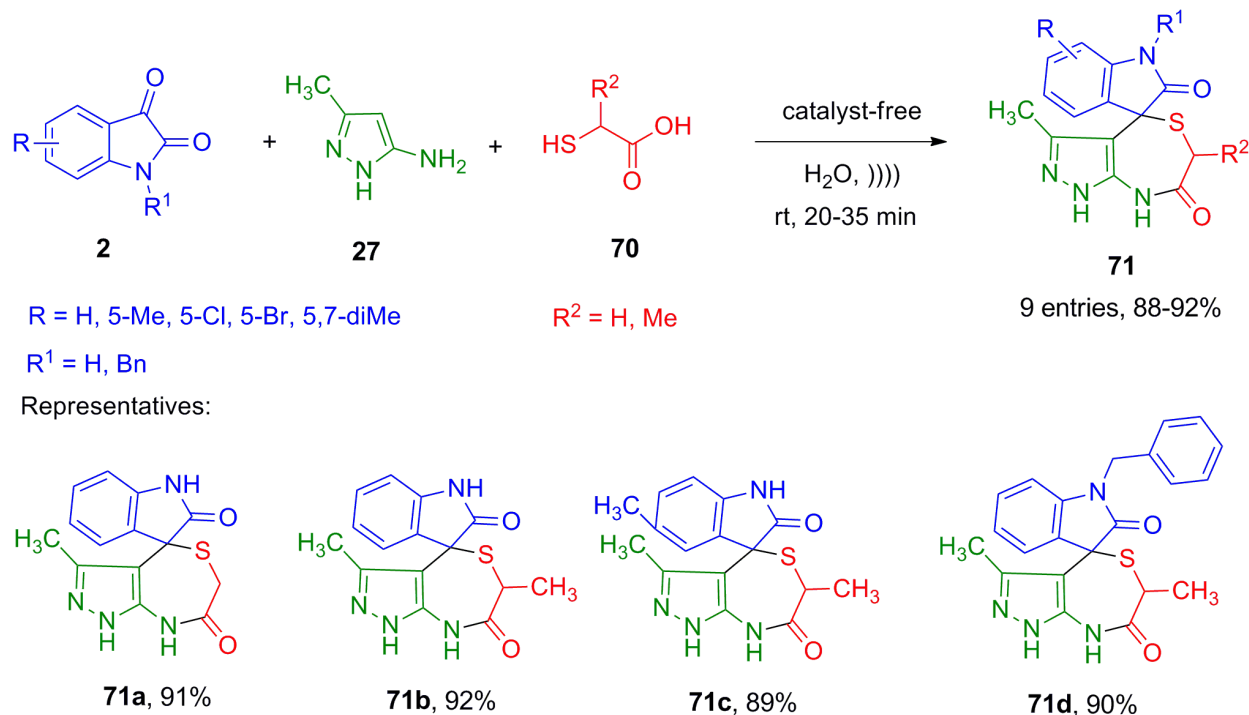


**Scheme 44** ZSM-5 zeolite supported ionic liquid catalyzed synthesis of spiro[indole-pyrido[3,2-*e*]thiazine] derivatives in an aqueous medium under ultrasonic irradiation

### 5.2 Synthesis of spiro[indole-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-*e*][1,4]thiazepine] derivatives

Simple, efficient, catalyst-free, ultrasound-assisted three-component condensation reactions of isatins (**2**), 3-amino-5-methylpyrazoles (**27**) and 2-mercaptoacetic acid derivatives (**70**) have been reported by Dandia et al. [80] to afford the corresponding

biologically promising spiro[indole-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-*e*][1,4]thiazepine] derivatives (**71**) with good to excellent yields in aqueous medium at ambient temperature (Scheme 45).

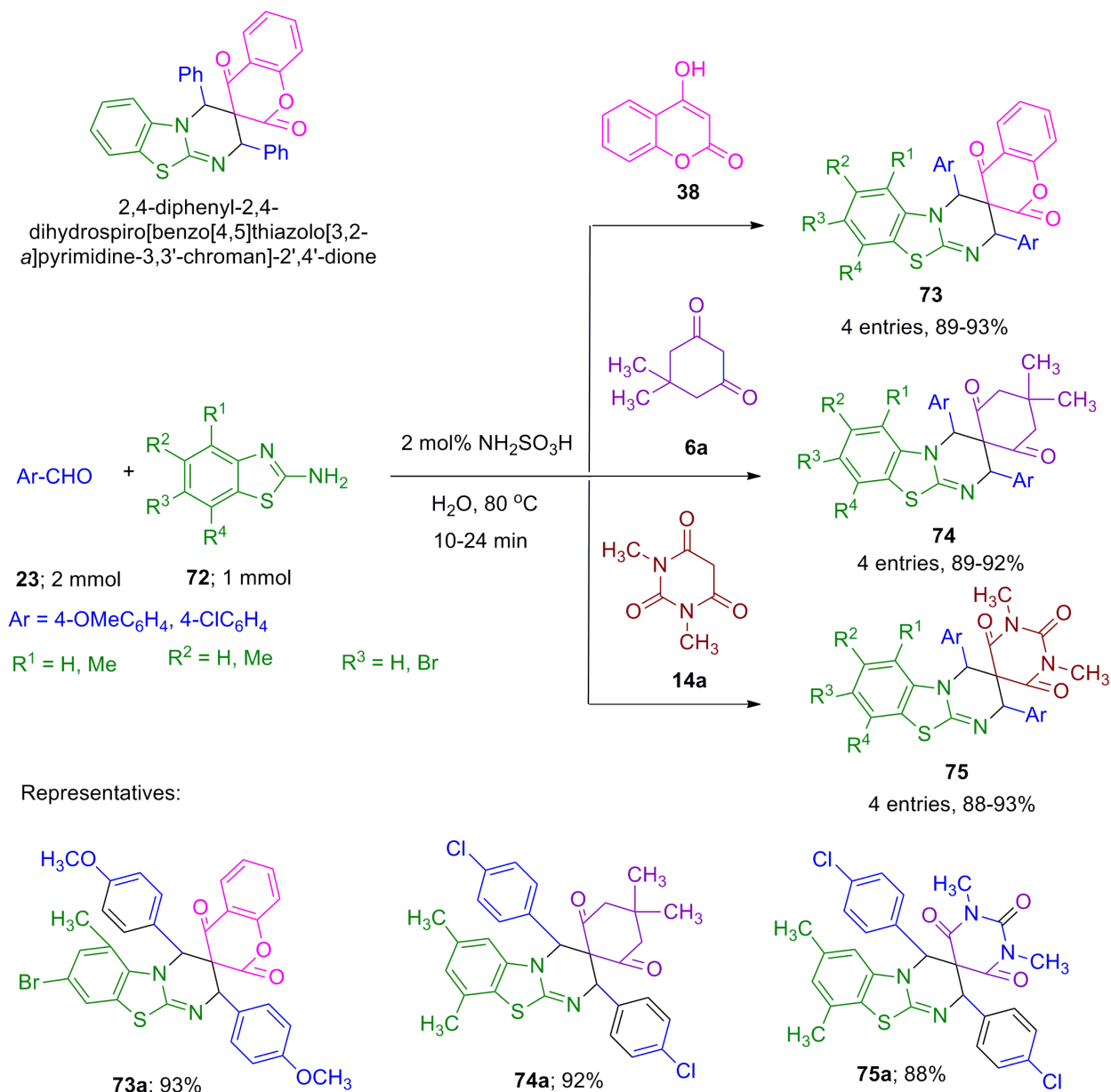


**Scheme 45** Ultrasound-assisted water-mediated synthesis of spiro[indole-3,4'-pyrazolo[3,4-*e*][1,4]thiazepines]

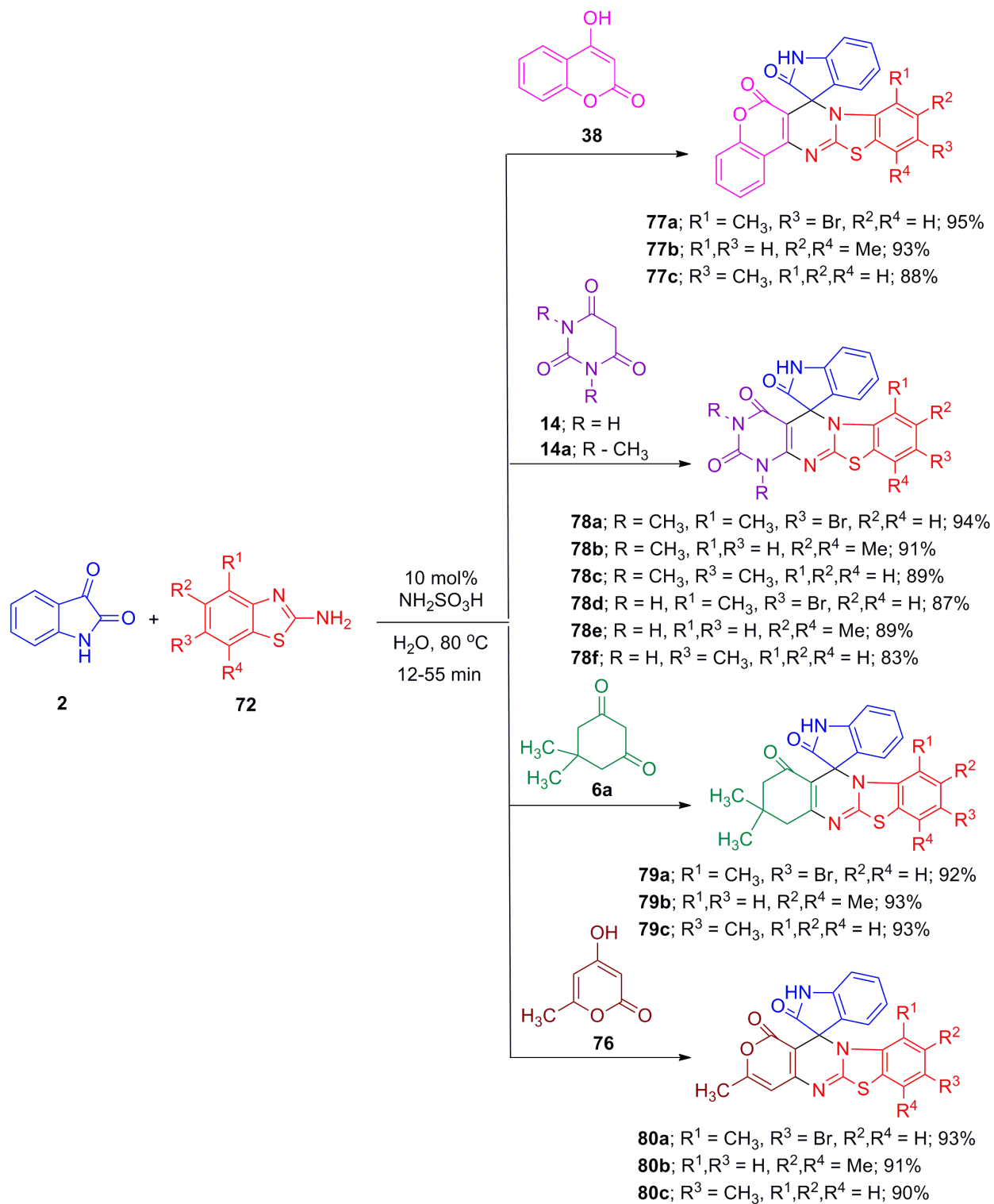
### 5.3 Synthesis of benzothiazole fused spiroheterocycles

Kumar et al. [81] synthesized a series of structurally diverse spiro[pyrimido[2,1-*b*]benzothiazole-3,3'-chromene]-2',4'-diones (**73**), spiro[pyrimido[2,1-*b*]benzothiazole-3,2'-cyclohexane]-1',3'-diones (**74**) and spiro[pyrimido[2,1-*b*]benzothiazole-3,5'-pyrimidine]-2',4',6'-triones (**75**) derivatives *via* pseudo-four component condensation reactions of two equivalents of aldehydes (**23**), one equivalent of 2-aminobenzothiazoles (**72**) and one equivalent of C-H activated acids such as 4-hydroxycoumarin (**38**) or dimedone (**6a**) or 1,3-dimethylbarbituric acid (**14a**) respectively using salfamic acid as a metal-free organocatalyst in water at 80 °C (Scheme 46). The same group also synthesized another series of structurally diverse benzothiazole fused spiroheterocycles

such as spiro[benzothiazolo[2,3-*b*]chromeno[3,4-*e*]pyrimidine-7,3'-indoline]-2',6-diones (**77a-c**), spiro[benzothiazolo[2,3-*b*]pyrimido[5,4-*e*]pyrimidine-5,3'-indoline]-2,2',4-triones (**78a-f**), spiro[benzothiazolo[2,3-*b*]quinazolin-5,3'-indoline]-2',4-diones (**79a-c**) and spiro[benzothiazolo[2,3-*b*]pyrano[3,4-*e*]pyrimidine-5,3'-indoline]-2',4-diones (**80a-c**) *via* one-pot three-component reactions of isatins (**2**), 2-aminobenzothiazoles (**72**) and various C-H activated acids (**38**, **14**, **14a**, **6a**, **76**) using the same sulfamic acid as catalyst under the same optimized reaction conditions (Scheme 47) [82].



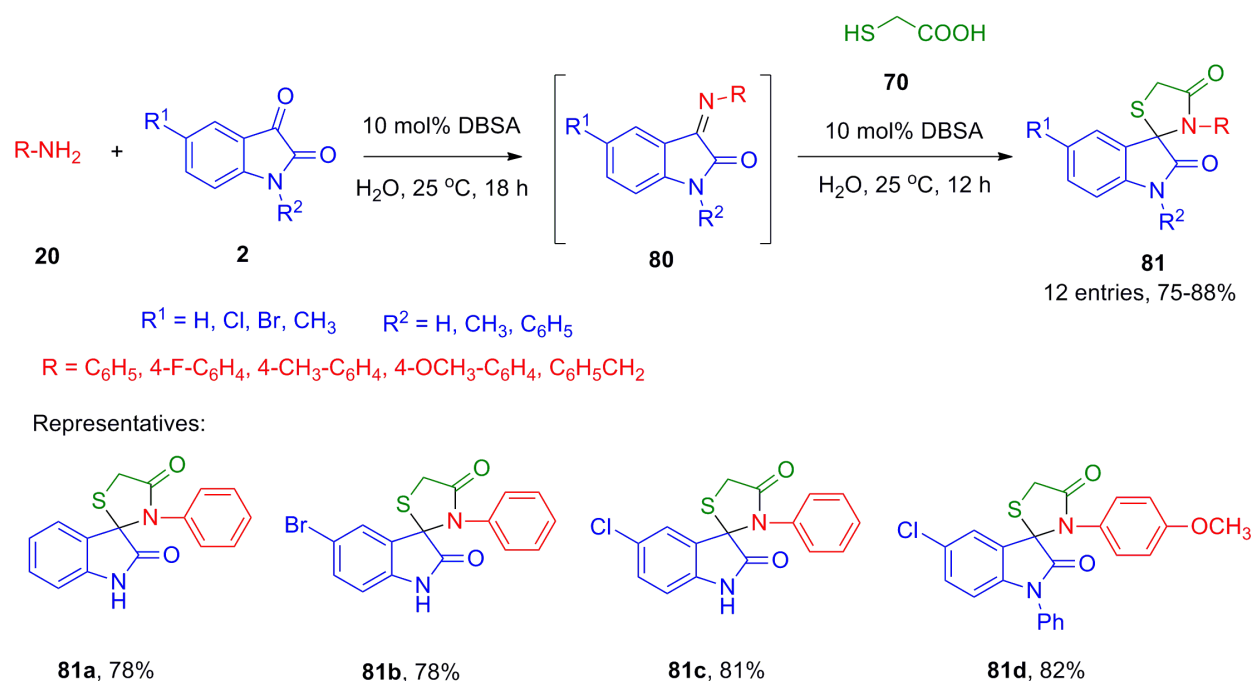
**Scheme 46**  $\text{NH}_2\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ -catalyzed synthesis of spirobenzothiazole fused heterocycles in water



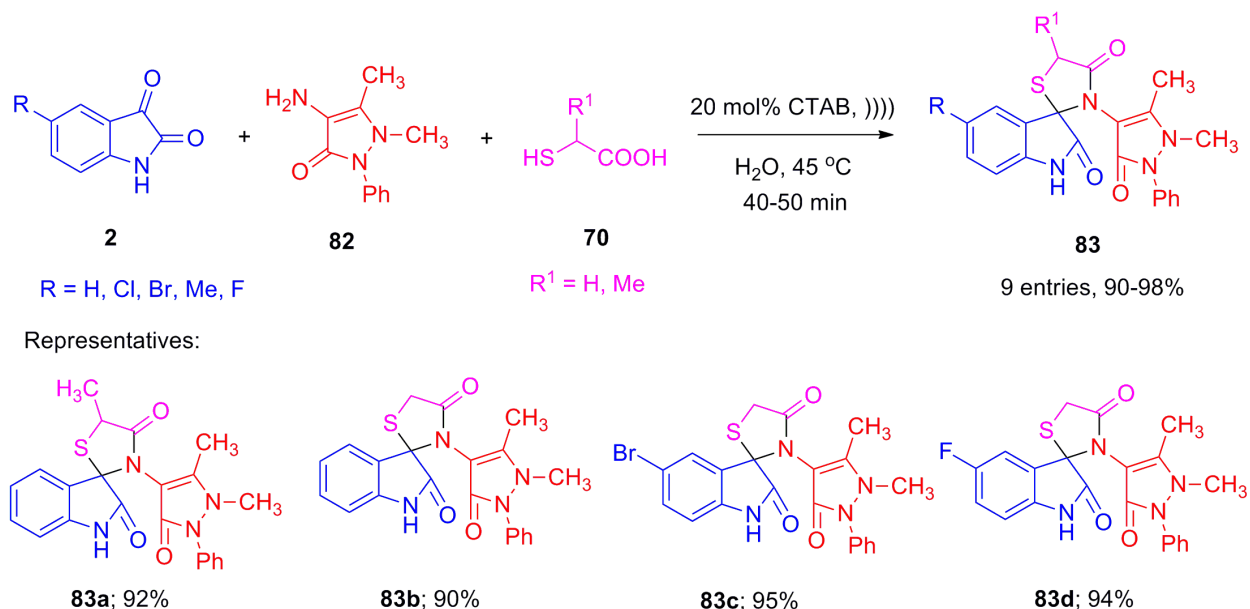
**Scheme 47**  $\text{NH}_2\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ -catalyzed synthesis of benzothiazole fused spiroindolinones in water

## 5.4 Synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,2'-thiazolidinone] derivatives

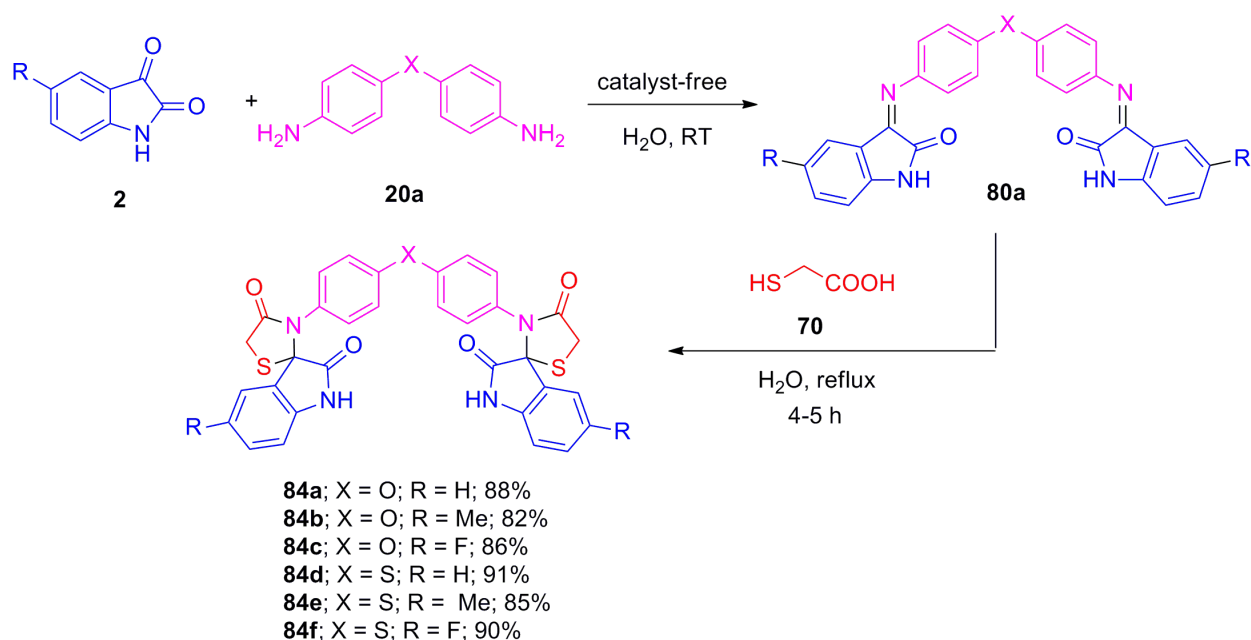
Preetam et al. [83] synthesized a number of biologically promising spiro[indoline-3,2'-thiazolidinones] (**81**) through the reactions of amines (**20**), substituted isatins (**2**) and thioglycolic acid (**70**) employing catalytic amount of *p*-dodecylbenzenesulfonic acid (DBSA) as an efficient catalyst in aqueous media at 25 °C (Scheme 48). It was proposed that the reaction underwent *via* the formation of *in situ* generated imine type intermediate **80**. Dandia et al. [84] prepared another series of spiro[indole-3,2'-thiazolidinone]-2,4-dione derivatives (**83**) *via* one-pot three-component tandem reactions of isatins (**2**), 4-amino-1,5-dimethyl-2-phenyl-1*H*-pyrazol-3(2*H*)-one (**82**) and thioglycolic acids (**70**) using a catalytic amount of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) as an efficient phase transfer catalyst in water under ultrasonic irradiation at 45 °C (Scheme 49). Catalyst-free synthesis of a series of novel symmetrical bis-spiro[indoline-3,2'-thiazolidinones] (**84a-f**) was achieved by Panda et al. [85] in water under reflux conditions (Scheme 50).



**Scheme 48** DBSA-catalyzed synthesis of spiro[indoline-3,2'-thiazolidinone] derivatives in water



**Scheme 49** CTAB catalyzed synthesis of spiro[indole-3,2'-thiazolidinone]-2,4-dione derivatives in water

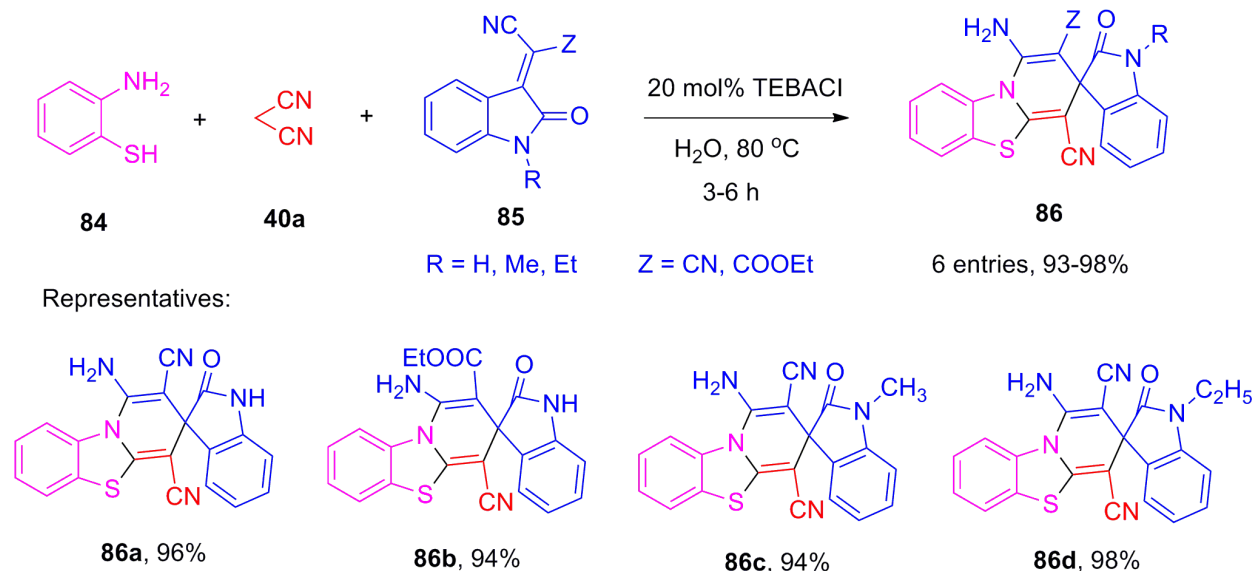


**Scheme 50** Ultrasound-promoted synthesis of bis-spiro[indoline-3,2'-thiazolidinones] under catalyst-free conditions in an aqueous medium



## 5.5 Synthesis of spiro{pyrido[2,1-*b*]benzothiazole-3,3'-indoline derivatives

Hussein et al. [86] reported a simple and efficient protocol for the synthesis of spiro{pyrido[2,1-*b*]benzothiazole-3,3'-indoline derivatives (**86**) *via* one-pot three-component reactions of 2-mercaptoaniline (**84**), malononitrile (**40a**) and various 2-oxoindoline-3-ylidines (**85**) using a catalytic amount of triethylbenzylammonium chloride (TEBACl) in aqueous medium at 80 °C (Scheme 51).



**Scheme 51** TEBACl-catalyzed synthesis of spiro{pyrido[2,1-*b*]benzothiazole-3,3'-indoline derivatives in water

## Conclusion

Spiroheterocycles with immense biological activities are the backbone of many natural products. Spiroheterocycles are being used as anesthetics, insect antifeedant, antibiotic, antimicrobial, antifungal, cytotoxic, antitumor, inhibitors of microtubule assembly, anti-ulcer, anti-food-deteriorating, CNS stimulant, convallamarogenin, HIV-1 reverse transcriptase inhibitor, cholesterol absorption inhibitor, and antihypertensive agents. Interestingly, to synthesize structurally diverse spiroheterocycles one-pot multi-component reaction strategy has become one of the important tools as it provides a number of advantages such as minimization of the purification processes by reducing the number of work-up steps, operational simplicity, atom economic, energy efficiency, *etc.* On the other hand, water is the safest solvent to carry out organic transformations

because of its environmental friendliness as well as it is non-flammable, cheap and abundantly available in nature. Therefore aqueous mediated synthesis of biologically promising spiroheterocycles *via* one-pot multi-component strategy is one of the attractive areas of today's organic chemists. The present chapter covers the "up-to-date" literature related to the aqueous mediated multi-component synthesis of biologically promising spiroheterocycles in a pot.

## Acknowledgments

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## Chapter 10

# Application of Ionic Liquids in Gas Separation Membranes

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### Abstract

Gas emission is a direct result of huge industrial progresses since the last century. To overcome the hazardous effects of these acid gases, it is crucial to separate and capture these unwanted gases. Ionic liquids owing to negligible vapor pressure, high thermal resistance and widespread electrochemical stability have found their application in gas separation membranes. In this chapter, a comprehensive summary of the applications of ionic liquids in gas separation membranes is described. The main classifications of ionic liquid membranes (ILMs) such as supported ionic liquid membranes (SILMs), ionic liquid polymeric membranes (ILPMs) and ionic liquid mixed matrix membranes (ILMMMs) and their applications for the separation of various mixed gases systems have been discussed in detail.

### Keywords

Ionic Liquids, Acid Gas Separation Membranes, Membrane Types, Rubbery ILPMs, ILMs

### List of Abbreviations

1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium	[emim]
Bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide	Tf <sub>2</sub> N
Bistriflimide	TFSI
Dichloromethane	DCM
Ionic liquid membranes	ILMs

Ionic liquid mixed matrix membranes	ILMMMs
Ionic liquid polymeric membranes	ILPMs
Poly(vinylidene fluoride)-(hexafluoropropyl)	PVDF-HFP
Polyacrylonitrile	PAN
polyamide	PA
Polyethersulfone	PES
Polyionic liquids	PILs
Polysulfone	PSF
Pressure swing absorption	PSA
Room-temperature ionic liquids	RTILs
Supported ionic liquid membranes	SILMs
Task-specific ionic liquids	TSILs
Tetrafluoroborate	BF <sub>4</sub>

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## 1. Introduction

CO<sub>2</sub> emission, acid rain [1], and fog and haze [2] are causing global warming issues. International energy agency has reported that CO<sub>2</sub> emission is increasing by 6% annually due to the utilization of fossil fuels as an energy source [3] and these fossil fuels will remain a major source of electric power generation. Rapid growing human civilization demands on controlling these emissions to facilitate a clean-living environment for humans. Therefore, it is a basic requirement to capture these harmful gas emissions with appropriate methods.

Physical and chemical solvents scrubbing, pressure swing absorption (PSA), cryogenic distillation, amine absorption, and membrane separation are mainly techniques in use, to treat industrial trail gases or process gases.

However, membrane technology in gas separation application is getting importance due to its advantages over other conventional processes, such as ease of operation, low energy requirements, compact size, low operating and capital cost, and environmental friendly separation. Polymeric materials are fascinating and getting importance due to the brilliant film forming nature and mechanical stability and lower price in gas separation applications. Many polymers have been reported in membrane fabrication such as polysulfone (PSF), polyethersulfone (PES), polyacrylonitrile (PAN), and polyamide etc.

### What are ionic liquids (ILs)?

ILs are organic salts that exist in liquid form at room temperature. ILs remain liquid at low temperature due to the irregularity of the cation, attached with resonance-stabilized anions. Ionic liquids due to their negligible vapor pressure and higher thermal stability are feasible in gas separation processes.

Classification of ionic liquids is reported as room-temperature ILs (RTILs) [4], task-specific ILs (TSILs) [5] and polyionic liquids (PILs) [6]. All types of ionic liquids are made up of a combination of cations and anions. These cations and anions with proper functionalization can alter the properties of the material in which they are incorporated such as hydrophobicity/hydrophilicity and specific chemical interactions. In polymers, the ionic liquids act as wetting agents and produce flexibility in the polymer chains, this characteristic of the ionic liquids opens a way to use them in polymer gas separation membranes.

Pual W. et al. [7] in 1914 reported the use of ionic liquid and nowadays use of ILs has become important in many applications, as well as in gas separation membranes through dispensing in the polymer materials. Particularly, ILs were recommended as CO<sub>2</sub> separation medium by Blanchard et al. [8] in 2001. At present, in the last two decades,

usage of ionic liquids has been expanded tremendously, in many multidisciplinary fields such as chemistry, material science, chemical engineering and environmental science [9]. Many studies have been reported in gas separation membranes as well [10-12]. However, the usage of ILs has also limitations because of its high cost, uncertain toxicities, and environmental effects.

ILs have great potential to substitute conventional organic solvents because of their exceptional characteristics such as negligible vapor pressure, non-flammability and higher ionic conductivity [13]. Firstly, ionic liquids were incorporated in supported ionic liquid membranes (SILMs) to substitute the conventional solvents which have the limitation of solvent loss because of volatilization, even though conventional supported liquid membranes have high permeability values because of higher liquid diffusivities [14].

### **Types of ionic liquids**

Mainly three types of ionic liquids are described in the literature, task-specific ILs (TSILs) [5] room-temperature ILs (RTILs) [4] and polyionic liquids (PILs) [6]. In tasks specific ionic liquids, ILs act as a complexing agent, basically IL is added with maximum loading in the base material. In this manner, such ILs absorb higher quantities of the target gas. Such as, Davis et al. [15] reported the development of IL-based amine functionality, in which IL efficiently absorbed 0.5 mol of CO<sub>2</sub> per mol of IL. More, complexing agents are also incorporated in ILs to increase solubility uptake of many target gases [16, 17]. Relatively, RTILs due to modular nature are polymerized. Applications of RTILs are green solvents for reactions, in membranes separations and electrochemical systems [18]. Imidazolium and pyridinium based ionic liquids have been reported as reasonable solvents for CO<sub>2</sub> separation due to tunable cation or anion properties to achieve better gas separation performance [19]. Furthermore, polymeric ionic liquids, because of higher intake capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> and good mechanical strength [20] values in comparison to straight RTIL [21], have also been incorporated in gas separation membranes. Polymerization of RTIL monomer by altering the n-alkyl length has been helpful to enhance the permeability of target gases i.e. CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) [22].

## **2. Gas separation through ionic liquid polymer membranes**

Separation of gas mixtures has been achieved using porous and non-porous membranes. The driving force for separation is the difference in partial pressure of gas between two edges of the membrane. Permeation is associated with rate control and separation is measured by the selectivity of the membrane at a specific pressure, temperature, flow rate and membrane area [23]. Gas separation occurs only if a specific constituent of gas

passes through the membrane more quickly compared to others. Based on pore sizes of the membrane matrix, few important transport mechanisms in gas separation membranes have been stated in literature such as Knudsen diffusion, solution-diffusion, molecular sieving, and Poiseuille flow. Porous membrane includes Poiseuille flow, Knudsen diffusion, and molecular sieving, in which the separation process is based on molecular size through the small pores in the membrane matrix whereas the common commercial applications are based on nonporous via solution-diffusion mechanism [24].

Global warming is the key issue for CO<sub>2</sub> capture from industrial gas mixtures. RTILs provides a highly adjustable and tunable medium for the progress of new processes and materials designed to the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from power plant emitted gases as well as in CH<sub>4</sub> sweetening processes [25]. Membrane technology is an attractive method to CO<sub>2</sub> separation from N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in industrial processes. Higher selective polymer membranes have been proposed as a long-term substitute for other separation processes for certain CO<sub>2</sub> separation processes [26]. Ionic liquid membranes are considered highly useful for selective separation of CO<sub>2</sub> from gaseous mixtures.

Initially, ionic liquids were incorporated into porous polymer supports where ionic liquids were injected into the pores. The pores were wetted with ILs with the help of capillary forces. These supported membranes provided higher permeability values of the target gas. However, loss of ionic liquids at higher pressure was the main issue in the expansion of these membranes for long term usage. As a replacement of these membranes, physical blending was considered appropriate to resolve the solvent loss issue. In this method, the reinforcement of ionic liquid into polymeric membranes is done [27]. Recently, a lot of work has been reported by researchers on the blending of IL in the polymer matrix. From the literature survey, it has been observed that CO<sub>2</sub> has more solubility in imidazolium-based RTILs. Therefore, 1-R-3-methyl imidazolium-based RTILs have gained special attention in CO<sub>2</sub> separations. Their low viscosity as compared to other RTILs is also another factor for their selection [28]. Both glassy and rubbery polymers have been used as a host polymer for the development of ILPMs as discussed in the following sections. In addition, block copolymer-based polymers have also been used in the development of ILPMs.

### **Rubbery ionic liquid polymeric membranes**

Initially, the proof-of-concept was demonstrated by Bara et al. [29] for poly(RTIL)/RTIL blend membranes. They prepared ILPMs by blending poly(RTIL)/([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) due to the fact that poly(RTIL) demonstrated typically low diffusivity than pure SILMs. The objective was to provide enough free IL to facilitate the transport of target gas. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability of composite ILPM was 44 barrer, while the permeability of poly(RTIL)

membrane was 9.2 barrer only. However, a reduction in CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity from 39 to 27 was observed due to increased diffusion of both gases.

Later, the same group studied the effects of variation in anions and cations in RTILs on the transport properties of composite poly(RTIL)/RTIL ILPMs [30, 31]. It was observed that [Tf<sub>2</sub>N] anion has the highest CO<sub>2</sub> permeability due to higher molar volume compared to other anions. Similarly, imidazolium-based cations having different functionalities were tested and it was found that imidazolium cation with fluoroalkyl group was more selective towards CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> separation due to the better combination of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusivity and solubility.

Zarca et al. [32] reported the gas transport properties of poly(RTIL)/([C<sub>4</sub>mim][Cl]) in the presence of copper salt. The presence of copper salt reduced CO<sub>2</sub> permeability from 226.7 barrer for poly(RTIL)/([C<sub>4</sub>mim][Cl]) to 8.4 barrer for poly(RTIL)/([C<sub>4</sub>mim][Cl]) containing 8wt. % copper salt due to reduction in gas solubility. However, CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity increased from 29 for poly(RTIL)/([C<sub>4</sub>mim][Cl]) to 34 for poly(RTIL)/([C<sub>4</sub>mim][Cl]) containing 8wt. % copper salt due to increase in CO<sub>2</sub> gas diffusivity.

Recently, Tome et al. [33] explored the film forming abilities of poly(RTIL)/([C<sub>2</sub>mim][C(CN)<sub>3</sub>]) ILPMs with various molecular weights of poly(RTILs). Stable membranes were not obtained for lower molecular weights of poly(RTILs). Medium and higher molecular weight poly(RTILs) containing 60 % of free ([C<sub>2</sub>mim][C(CN)<sub>3</sub>]) IL displayed outstanding performance (CO<sub>2</sub> permeability = 542 and 439 barrer respectively, CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity = 54 and 64.4 respectively) and surpassed the Robeson upper bound limit. However, the synthesized membranes had gone through a severe loss in mechanical strength with the addition of IL in the membrane matrix.

Following the approach of using poly(RTIL) polymers, Hong et al. [34] reported the synthesis of poly(vinylidene fluoride)-(hexafluoropropyl) (PVDF-HFP) copolymer/1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate ([emim][BF<sub>4</sub>]) membrane. The copolymer was selected due to better mechanical strength and miscibility with the IL. There was no particular interaction among the polymer and the IL and the components were mixed by physical mixing only. The CO<sub>2</sub> permeability of ILPM reached 400 barrer at 2 atm pressure coupled with CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity of 60 under mixed gas feed conditions (50/50 %). This performance was beyond the Robeson upper bound line for CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> separation.

Following the success of this strategy, PVDF-HFP copolymer was later tested with various combinations of imidazolium-based ILs having different anions and cations. For example, Uchytel et al. [35] synthesized ILPMs with PVDF-HFP copolymer along with



two different ILs i.e. ([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) and ([hmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]). Better performances in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability and CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity were obtained with ([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) based ILPMs than ([hmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) based ILPMs. The authors concluded that this difference could be due to the difference in the chain length of imidazolium-based cations. The CO<sub>2</sub> permeability of PVDF-HFP/([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) and PVDF-HFP/([hmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) ILPMs were 1620 and 877 barrer respectively, compared to 1.3 barrer for pure PVDF-HFP polymer membrane. Similarly, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivities of PVDF-HFP/([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) and PVDF-HFP/([hmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) ILPMs were 15.3 and 11.3 respectively, compared to 7.7 for pure PVDF-HFP polymer membrane.

Friess et al. [36] also explored the opportunity of PVDF-HFP/([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) ILPM for gas and vapor separation and found that CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increased significantly in the presence of ([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) IL. However, the decreasing trend in CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity was observed. Due to a decrease in mechanical strength of ILPMs, the authors suggested the change in transport mechanism from diffusion-controlled transport to the solubility-controlled mechanism. The authors identified a severe loss in mechanical properties especially Young's modulus of ILPM at higher IL loading (3MPa) compared to pure polymer membrane (1500MPa).

Jansen et al. [37] compared the effects of ([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) and ([Hdmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) ILs on PVDF-HFP based ILPMs at varying ionic liquid concentrations. The blends of ILs ([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) and ([Hdmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) in various ratios were found to provide better performance due to complementary properties of both ILs. Fluoropolymer and fluorinated anion i.e. bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide demonstrated improved compatibilities in the membrane matrix. The elastic modulus and break strength of ILPMs decreased vividly as the IL loading was increased. ILPM with 40 wt. % loading of ([emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) and ([Hdmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N]) ILs in 50/50 blend ratio demonstrated a stable performance at 60°C. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability was found to be 212 barrer and the corresponding CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity was 8.48.

Table 1 [29, 32-35, 37-39] presents the literature summary of rubbery ILPMs developed in recent years. The [emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] IL has been extensively used as free IL due to its higher CO<sub>2</sub> permeability and suitable CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity. A comparison of various SILMs shows that [emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] has the highest reported CO<sub>2</sub> permeability with a moderate CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity and low viscosity as shown in Table 2 [40].

*Table 1 Literature summary of rubbery ILPMs*

Polymer	Ionic Liquid	PCO <sub>2</sub> (barrer)	CO <sub>2</sub> /CH <sub>4</sub> Selectivity	Reference
Poly(RTIL)	[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	44	27	[29]
P[vbim][NTf <sub>2</sub> ]	[emim][NTf <sub>2</sub> ]	300.1	14.8	[38]
	[emim][B(CN) <sub>4</sub> ]	365.4	15.8	
	[emim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	233.2	17.1	
poly(RTIL)	[C <sub>4</sub> mim][Cl] with CuCl salt	8.4	34*	[32]
poly(RTIL)	[C <sub>2</sub> mim][C(CN) <sub>3</sub> ]	439	64.4*	[33]
p(VDF-HFP)	[emim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	400	60*	[34]
p(VDF-HFP)	[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	1620	15.3	[35]
	[hmim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	877	11.3	
PVDF	[emim][B(CN) <sub>4</sub> ]	1778	41.4*	[39]
PVDF-HFP	Mixture of [emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N] and [Hdmim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	212	8.48	[37]

\* CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity*Table 1 Permeability and selectivity of imidazolium-based RTIL [40]*

Ionic Liquid	CO <sub>2</sub> Single Gas Permeability (barrer)	CO <sub>2</sub> /CH <sub>4</sub> Mixed Gas Selectivity	Viscosity (×10 <sup>-3</sup> Pa.s) (cP))
[emim][TF <sub>2</sub> N]	1702 ± 13	17 ± 0.9	26
[emim][DCA]	1237 ± 30	24 ± 1.4	21
[emim][CF <sub>3</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> ]	1171 ± 16	22 ± 1.2	45
[C <sub>6</sub> mim][TF <sub>2</sub> N]	1136 ± 20	9.9 ± 0.9	55
[emim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	968 ± 10	27 ± 0.8	34
[emim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	939 ± 10	12.9 ± 1.1	25

### Glassy ionic liquid polymeric membranes

Poly(RTIL), PVDF and PVDF-HFP polymers are rubbery in nature that could be a reason for lower selectivity of ILPMs. Therefore, glassy polyimide (PI) polymer was also evaluated as a host polymer for ILPMs. Kanehashi et al. [41] studied the performance of PI/[bmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] ILPMs under a wide range of IL loading (0-81 %). At lower IL loading, reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability was observed due to the blocking-effect of IL. The presence of IL blocked the diffusion path of CO<sub>2</sub> gas by the plasticizing effect. However,

at higher IL loading (51-81 %), a linear increase in the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability of ILPMs was observed due to the formation of separate IL domain in the membrane matrix that provided excessive freedom for gas diffusion. However, the permeability of ILPM at 81 % IL loading (501 barrer) was lower than base PI polymer (1156 barrer) due to a decrease in gas diffusivity and solubility in ILPMs. At the same time, the CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity of PI/[bmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] ILPM was reported as 14.5 which was also lower than base PI showing a selectivity of 18.6.

Liang et al. [42] also explored the opportunity of glassy polyamide (PI) and polybenzimidazole (PBI) polymers with [bmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] IL in a composite arrangement by synthesizing composite ionic liquid and polymer membrane (CILPM) for gas separation. The membranes were tested at the elevated condition of temperature (35-200°C) and lower pressure range (2-6 bar). PBI based CILPMs were found to be more suitable for H<sub>2</sub> separation while PI-based CILPMs were found to be suitable for CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> separation. At higher temperatures, the membrane exhibited higher permeability at the expense of selectivity. The best performance (CO<sub>2</sub> permeability = 7.9 barrer, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity = 54.9) was achieved with PI/[bmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] at 30 % IL loading at 35°C which showed the potential of glassy polymers as a membrane matrix for ILPMs.

Mohshim et al. [43] compared the effect of anions on the performance of polyethersulfone PES based ILPMs. ILPMs were synthesized at lower loadings of IL (10-20 %) in PES/[emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] and PES/[emim][CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] ILPMs. The ILPMs based on [emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] IL showed higher CO<sub>2</sub> permeability due to lower viscosity and higher affinity towards CO<sub>2</sub> gas. However, due to lower permeability and blocking the effect of [emim][CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] as a plasticizer, the CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity of PES/[emim][CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] ILPM was found to be higher than PES/[emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] ILPM. The synthesized ILPMs displayed stable performance even at a higher feed pressure of 30 bar indicating their suitability as a potential material for CO<sub>2</sub> separation at elevated pressures. However, lower IL concentration was used by physical blending of ionic liquid in solvent first and the polymer was added after that in the solution. A very high viscous solution was developed by this method resulting in difficulty in solubility of the polymer in the solvent and ionic liquid mixture. Consequently, the drying process was lowered. This resulted in irregularity in the membrane structure. Moreover, the membranes were not fully characterized in terms of IL distribution, mechanical stability, the effect of IL on the morphology, interaction between polymer and IL. Additionally, the synthesized ILPMs were tested under single gas conditions and no information was reported on the long-term stability of the membranes.

Polysulfone (PSF) was also used as a base polymer for ILPM synthesis due to its thermal and mechanical stability. Lu et al. [44] incorporated various loadings of a few ILs in the

PSF matrix and evaluated the membranes for CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> separation. Instead of a dense membrane structure, the synthesized ILPMs demonstrated porous structures which might be due to fast evaporation of dichloromethane (DCM) solvent leaving behind pores in membrane structure. However, interestingly, the synthesized ILPMs maintained their selectivity with higher CO<sub>2</sub> permeability. Table 3 presents the literature summary of glassy ILPMs [41-45].

*Table 3 Literature summary of glassy ILPMs [41-45]*

Polymer	Ionic Liquid	PCO <sub>2</sub> (barrer)	CO <sub>2</sub> /CH <sub>4</sub> Selectivity	Reference
PI	[bmim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	501	14.5	[41]
PI	[bmim][NTf <sub>2</sub> ]	7.9	54.9	[42]
PES	[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N] [emim][CF <sub>3</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> ]	45 25	11 24	[43]
PSF	[bmim][TFSI] [bdim][TFSI] [dcim][TFSI] [dems][TFSI] [Hdph][TFSI] [Hdph][DC]	3000* 3600* 3400* 5800* 5200* 4900*	28** 27.7** 24.6** 30** 25** 25**	[44]
PSF	TEAF	69.39***	53	[45]

\* × 10<sup>5</sup> GPU

\*\* CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity

\*\*\* GPU

### Block copolymer based ILPMs

In recent years, elastomeric multi-block copolymer poly(ether-block-amide) has been extensively studied as a host polymer for ILPMs. It has an unstructured rubbery segment, polyether (PE), and a hard-glassy semi-crystalline segment, polyamide (PA). It is commercially available with the trademark of Pebax in different grades. Pebax has a phase separated microstructure where hard PA segments provide mechanical stability and soft PE segments facilitate high permeability due to high chain mobility. In addition, PE segments demonstrate a higher attraction to the quadrupolar carbon dioxide, and thus, provide higher CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity over nonpolar gases (CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>).

Bernardo et al. [46] first explored the opportunity of using Pebax as a base polymer with [bmim][CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] IL at higher IL loadings (80 wt. %). They used two grades of Pebax namely, Pebax 2533 and Pebax 1657 for membrane synthesis. Reduction in mechanical strength of ILPMs was observed as IL loadings increased due to the suspension of IL in

the polyether phase. Pebax 1657 was found to be stiffer, less permeable, and higher selective than Pebax 2533. Pebax 2533 didn't show any significant change in gas permeability, diffusivity, or solubility after the incorporation of [bmim][CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] IL. However, Pebax 1657 showed a substantial increment in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability and reduction in selectivity after the incorporation of [bmim][CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] IL.

Later, Qiu et al. [47] synthesized Pebax 1657/[Bmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] ILPMs at various loadings of [Bmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] IL. Ionic liquid reduced the glass transition of the composite membranes since ionic liquid acted as a plasticizer in the matrix. Initially, at lower IL loading, reduction in gas permeability was observed due to the blocking effect of IL. However, as the concentration of IL increased, higher gas permeability was observed. At 40 wt. % IL loading, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability was 286 barrer, three times higher than neat Pebax membrane. However, a slight reduction in CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity was observed due to softening of the matrix and the passing of larger gas species such as CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>. This observation is commonly reported for ILPMs. Moreover, Pebax 1657/[Bmim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] ILPMs demonstrated CO<sub>2</sub>-induced plasticization phenomena even at lower pressures (3 bar).

Estahbanati et al. [48] investigated the effect of [bmim][BF<sub>4</sub>] IL on Pebax 1657 copolymer. Membrane structure became more irregular and complex on blending IL in Pebax matrix due to the plasticization effect of IL on Pebax polymer. This effect was more severe at higher IL loadings because IL reduced intermolecular hydrogen bonding between copolymer segments. The irregular membrane structure caused higher gas permeability. However, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability was enhanced due to the high affinity of CO<sub>2</sub> in both polymer and IL. Thus, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increased from 110 barrer for neat Pebax to 190 barrer for Pebax 1657/[bmim][BF<sub>4</sub>] ILPM at 50 % loading. The corresponding CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity improved from 20.8 to 24.4.

Pebax 1074/[bmim][PF<sub>6</sub>] ILPM system was studied by Mahdavi et al. [49] at various loadings of IL (0-80 wt.%). ILPMs exhibited complex morphology due to reduced inter-chain bonding caused by the occurrence of ionic liquid in the membrane matrix. The incorporation of IL in Pebax matrix increased the gas permeability and decreases the selectivity. The authors concluded that IL had enhanced the chain mobility of the blend membrane, thereby, increased the permeability of smaller and larger gases which caused a reduction in the selectivity.

Pebax 1657/[emim][BF<sub>4</sub>] polymer-IL pair was again explored by Fam et al. [50] in dense as well as multi-layer composite hollow fiber membrane configuration. In both cases, improved permeability was obtained with IL embedded membranes. However, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity was better in dense configuration than hollow fiber configuration due to the

possibility of defects in hollow fiber membranes. The membranes maintained the rubbery characteristics in the presence of IL which was characterized by an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability with respect to operating pressure.

Table 4 [46-54] presents the description of the recently reported studies on block copolymer and ionic liquid pairs for the development of ILPMs. Despite the high performance of ILPMs, a decrease in mechanical properties of ILPMs was observed with increases in IL weight %. Plasticization happens at higher ionic liquid loading, resulting in loss in mechanical properties. Due to this reason, ILPMs studies were mostly reported at lower operating pressure.

*Table 4 Selected studies on block copolymer based ILPMs*

Polymer	Ionic Liquid	PCO <sub>2</sub> (barrer)	CO <sub>2</sub> /CH <sub>4</sub> Selectivity	Reference
Pebax 2533 Pebax 1657	[bmim][CF <sub>3</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> ]	260 300	10 15	[46]
Pebax1657	[emim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	550	18	[51]
Pebax1657	[bmim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	286	12.5	[47]
Pebax1657	[bmim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	190	24.4	[48]
Pebax 1074	[bmim][PF <sub>6</sub> ]	104.26	18.51	[49]
Pebax1657	[emim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	270.1	27.3	[50]
Pebax1657	[bmim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	157.3	12.5	[52]
	[bmim][DCA]	126.4	13.8	
	[bmim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	90.8	17.6	
Pebax1657	[DnBM][Cl]	135	11	[53]
PS-PEO-PS	[emim][TFSA]	710	22	[54]
PS-PMMA-PS		840	13	
PS-PIL-PS		980	19	

### 3. Gas separation in supported ionic liquid membranes (SILMs)

Ionic liquids can be used in gas separation membrane in various ways. A common way to incorporate ionic liquids in membranes is using them as separation agents in SILMs [18]. In SILMs ionic liquid is injected in polymer support, the pores are made wetted with ILs [55] and ILs remain stuck within polymer due to capillary forces. SILMs provide higher permeability values of the target gas, in gas separation performance the rate of diffusion, dissolution, and desorption of target gas play an important role [56].

Barghi et al. [57] studied the effect of [bmim][PF<sub>6</sub>] ionic liquid on inorganic membrane support illustrating almost CO<sub>2</sub> diffusivity 30 times higher than CH<sub>4</sub>. Santos et al. [58] have reported an enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in [emim][TFSI]/polyvinylidene fluoride(PVDF) supported ionic liquid membranes from 2.7 to 325 barrer. Due to

negligible vapor pressure, ionic liquids are not lost by evaporation and hence [emim][Ac] has been used in SILMs for CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> [58, 59]. Albo et al. [59] reported different ways to insert [emim][Ac] ionic liquid in porous Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> tubes and confirmed long-lasting stability. TiO<sub>2</sub> coated with [emim][Ac] ionic liquid showed  $P_{CO_2} = 2.78 \pm 0.11 \times 10^{-8}$  mol/m<sup>2</sup>s.Pa giving selectivity value of 30.72 for CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> at 4 bar pressure. Santos et al. [58] reported that SILMs containing [emim][Ac], [bmim][Ac] and [vbtma][Ac] immobilized in poly(vinylidene fluoride) resulted in improvement of selectivity with rise in operating temperature because of high activation energy of N<sub>2</sub>. However, SLMs and SILMs are limited to perform at lower pressure. At higher pressure, ionic liquid gets pushed away from the porous supports resulting in a decrease in membrane performance [42, 60].

The pressure difference across SILMs rarely exceeds 2 bar which shows the limitation of SLMs and SILMs [32]. Despite the fact that SILMs, having a good impact on permeability enhancement of target gas, these membranes have shown the main drawback in losing ILs from polymeric supports at higher pressures. Much work has been reported on SILMs [27, 61,62] but a big issue in these membranes has been the displacement of ionic liquid upon applying high pressure. In order to overcome this issue and keeping used of ionic liquids in polymers for gas separation, the trend has changed to use IL-based mixed matrix membranes. Recently, Rizwan et al. [12] reported IL-based mixed matrix membranes using EDA modified SAPO-34 into the PES matrix along with the addition of [emim][Tf<sub>2</sub>N] and observed the improvement in CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> selectivities by ~37 folds as compared to pure PES membrane. Table 5 presents a summary of permeability and selectivity data for gas separation in supported ionic liquid membranes.

#### **4. Gas separation in ionic liquid mixed matrix membranes (ILMMMs)**

MMMs are heterogeneous membranes having a combination of inorganic materials reinforced in polymeric materials. The MMMs have been reported by Kulprathipanja et al. [68] as a better option for gas separation as compared to polymeric membranes. MMMs are considered a revolutionary method to enhance permeability and selectivity. In these membranes, gas separation performance is contributed by inorganic filler having molecular sieving ability. These fillers may be porous or nonporous such as carbon molecular sieves, zeolites are porous and silica is non-porous.

*Table 5: Literature summary of supported ionic liquid membranes (SILMs)*

Support	Ionic Liquid	PCO <sub>2</sub> Permeability (barrer)	CO <sub>2</sub> /CH <sub>4</sub> Selectivity	References
PES with 80% porosity	[emim][DCA]	1237	24	[63]
PVDF	[emim][CF <sub>3</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> ]	1171	17	[63]
PES	[emim][BF <sub>4</sub> ]	968	27	[63]
PES	[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	1702	17	[63]
PES	[C <sub>6</sub> mim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	1136	9.9	[63]
PES	[emim][CF <sub>3</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> ]	1771	22	[63]
PES	[EtMepy][(PFBu)SO <sub>3</sub> ]	897	6.6	[64]
PTFE	[emim][C(CN) <sub>3</sub> ]	667	19.4	[65]
PAN	[emim][DCA]	41.5	58*	[66]
PS-b-P4VP	[emim][DCA]	600	65*	[67]
PTFE	[emim][C(CN) <sub>3</sub> ]	667	57*	[65]
PVDF	[emim][AC]	878.8	33.7*	[58]
PES	[EtMepy][(PFBu)SO <sub>3</sub> ]	897	12.3*	[64]
poly(tetrafluoroethylene) PTFE	[emim][B(CN) <sub>4</sub> ]	742	49*	[65]
PTFE	[emim][C(CN) <sub>3</sub> ]	667	57*	[65]

\* CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity

In ionic liquid mixed matrix membranes, usually, three components are incorporated together to develop a membrane i.e. polymer, inorganic filler, and an ionic liquid. The addition of ionic liquid gives more advantages in the separation process, making ionic liquid mixed matrix membranes. ILMMs have been studied by many researchers [62, 69, 70]. Oral et al. [71] studied the incorporation of ionic liquid emim[Tf<sub>2</sub>N] and emim[CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>] into polyimide-zeolite (SAPO-34) and observed that addition of these ionic liquids into MMM has improved the filler-polymer interface as well as improved the permeability and selectivity. The use of ionic liquid in mixed matrix membranes also increases polymer and inorganic filler compatibility. For example, Zhou et al. [72] observed that gas separation performance of novel ionic cross-linked polyether



membranes based on poly(ionic liquid)s and poly(trimethylene ether)glycol units. This membrane showed CO<sub>2</sub> permeability 86–113 barrer and CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity 41–19 depending upon the density of the cross-linking used. It was observed that permeability for CO<sub>2</sub> was improved along with CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> enhancement. Table 6 [67, 70, 73] provides a summary of permeability and selectivity data for gas separation in supported ionic liquid membranes

*Table 6 Selected studies on ionic liquid mixed matrix membranes (ILMMMs)*

Ionic liquid	Polymer	CO <sub>2</sub> Single Gas Permeability (barrer)	CO <sub>2</sub> /CH <sub>4</sub> Selectivity	Reference
[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	PIL-based	44	27	[67]
[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	Styrene	72.1	32.2	[70]
[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	PIL-based	44	39*	[67]
[emim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	Styrene	72.1	42.4*	[70]
[hmim][Tf <sub>2</sub> N]	PTFE	600	18*	[73]

\* CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity

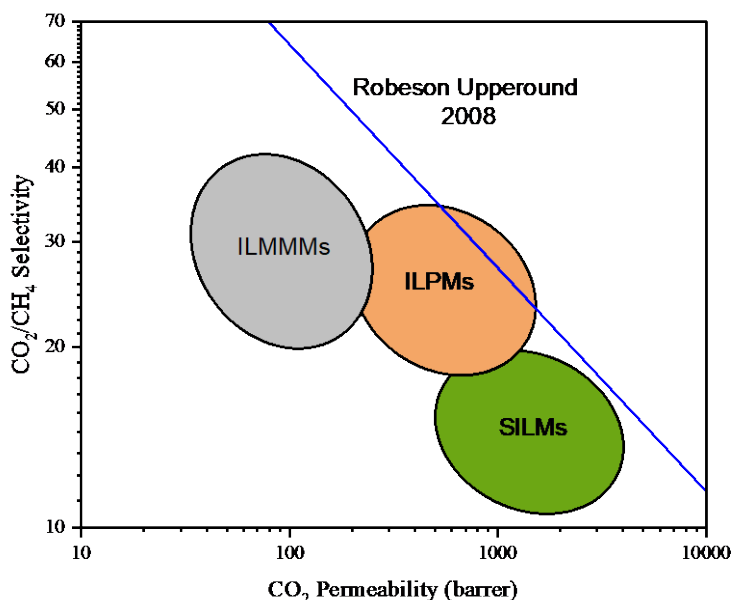
## 5. Future recommendations in research and development

At present, membranes for gas separations are lacking in durability and performance. The plasticization has been the major issue concerning with polymeric membranes. Also, the poor interactions between polymers and fillers have resulted in non-ideal filler-polymer interfacial morphology, e.g. interface voids, a rigid polymer layer around the inorganic fillers and particle pore blockage (in case of porous fillers) [74]. When glassy polymers are used as base material, poor polymer-filler interaction arises, that gives rise to the development of interfacial voids and hence poor selectivity. One more, big issue during membranes synthesis has been filler agglomeration, as it produces phase separation between filler and polymer, leading to the weakening of the composite and forming non-selective defects [75]. Consequently, these issues are causing challenges for improved gas separation performances and there is a need for exploring efficient technology to address these issues.

The immobilization of ionic liquids in the polymer by different methods produces numerous types of ionic liquid membranes. ILs tunability and the features of the polymer suggest new opportunities for efficient gas separations. The synergy of ILs and polymers helps to achieve the required properties to gain the requirements of the desired applications. In this chapter, the literature review of IL-based membranes used for gas separation applications has been reviewed focusing on PILMs, SILMs, and ILMMMs.

Although ILs based membranes for gas separation provide many advantages, however, there are still challenges present for improving gas separation membranes. Mainly the gas separation performance is restricted by permeability/selectivity trade-off; therefore, synthesizing new ionic liquid-based membranes with enhanced permeability and selectivity is important. One effective way is to blend ionic liquid with a polymer. It has been reported as the presence of ionic liquids in polymers increases the plasticization pressure of membrane [11]. In the case of CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> separation, IL helps CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the polymer, increasing CO<sub>2</sub> permeance and selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> gas [4]. A tertiary complex system including polymer, inorganic filler, and the ionic liquid is significant and can be helpful to get desired gas separation application, however, a lot of expertise and efforts are required to deal with such complex system.

Additionally, the blending of ILs in the tertiary component system is helpful to form defect-free interfacial morphology. It functionalizes the fillers present, minimizing the interfacial morphology issue. Besides, it improves polymer-filler adhesion and helps to form defect-free interfacial morphology. A comparison of the performance of SILMs, PILMs, and ILMMMs has shown that trend is shifting toward ILMMMs due to the less ionic loss in ILMMMs as shown in Fig 1. Additionally, it has been suggested that ionic liquids, new solvents, new fillers as well as surface-modified fillers should [76] be incorporated in the polymer to achieve better gas separation performance.



*Fig. 1 Robeson's upper bound curves showing the general trade-off between permeability and selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> separation from this literature review data*

Furthermore, it is necessary to perform systematic and broad investigations on the structural properties of IL, polymer and inorganic fillers; so that membranes for desired gas separation applications can be developed.

## Conclusion

To enhance gas separation performance, the addition of various additives into the existing polymer membranes have been found to be a very beneficial approach. Few advantages and disadvantages of rubbery ionic liquid polymeric membranes (ILPMs), glassy ionic liquid polymeric membranes (ILPMs), supported ionic liquid membranes (SILMs), and ionic liquid mixed matrix membranes (ILMMs) have been reported in this chapter with specific incorporation of ionic liquids into gas separation membranes to enhance the gas separation. Novel combinations of polymers and ionic liquids has been recommended to attain high selectivity and high permeabilities of target gases. Ionic liquids with the combination of many anions and cations along with suitable polymers and solvents are attracting the researchers to meet the desired gas separation applications. In addition, the combined effect of ionic liquids with inorganic fillers in polymeric materials has been found to improve gas separation performance without compromising the mechanical strength of the membranes. In short, ionic liquids are expected to attain more attention in gas separation membranes in the future.

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